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ABSTRACT

Twelve author-contributed papers are presented from a 1983 conference on bilingual special education. The following authors and titles are represented: "The Challenge: Providing Quality Special Education Services to Linguistic Minority Students" (M. Serpa); "Bilingual Special Education: Issues in Student Placement" (S. Santos and R. Santos); "Where Do Native Language Interference Problems End--And Development Problems Begin" (L. Olguin); "Assessment Techniques in the Identification of the Culturally Different Gifted Student" (L. Amodeo); "Assessing the Multicultural Child" (C. Lopez); "Task Analysis Is Particularly Critical for Bilingual Special Education Pupils" (L. Olguin); "Conducive Learning for Language Minority Students" (M. Serpa); "Critical Issues in Bilingual Education for Counselors and Teachers" (B. Martin); "Issues in Bilingual Special Education: Teacher Preparation" (D. Banuelos); "Bilingual Vocational Education for Mildly Handicapped Hispanic Adolescents" (M. Plata); "Computer-Assisted Instruction for Limited Proficiency Students Learning Basic English Structures" (D. McClure, D. King and B. Dogger); and "Assessing the Bilingual Child: What Should Be, What Is and What Could Be" (R. Deyoe-Chiullan). (CL)

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ISSUES IN BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION

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Foreword

With great pleasure the Federation of North Texas Area Universities, a consortium for graduate education whose members are East Texas State University, North Texas State University, and Texas Woman's University, offers this Festschrift, *Issues in Bilingual Special Education*, which contains papers delivered at the Bilingual Special Education Conference sponsored by the Federation and held at the Texas Woman's University on June 30, and July 1, 1983.

The Bilingual Education/ESL Program Development Committee and the Special Education Program Development Committee wish to acknowledge the financial support from the Federation Council and to express sincere appreciation for that support. Further, these committees wish to acknowledge and to express appreciation for additional support for this Conference from the Bilingual Resource Center (Austin, Texas) and Evaluation Dissemination and Assessment Center (Dallas, Texas).

The Bilingual Education/ESL Program Development Committee has members from ETSU Dr. Rita Deyou-Chiullan, Dr. Sheryl Santos, and Dr. Alonzo Sosa; from NTSU Dr. Steven Applewhite, Dr. Billy Ed Martin; from TWU Dr. Frank Longoria, Dr. Rudolfo Rodriguez, and Dr. Don Whitmore. The Special Education Program Development Committee has members from ETSU Dr. Della Pepper Jeter, Dr. John Moss, and Dr. Max Plata; from NTSU Dr. Lyndal Bullock, Dr. Marjorie Chapman, and Dr. Claude Cheek; from TWU Dr. Marnell L. Hayes, Dr. Ernest O. Watkins, and Dr. Michael Wiebe.

Conference arrangements were coordinated by Dr. Marnell L. Hayes. The committees owe a considerable

debt of gratitude to Professor Hayes who guided this Conference during its conception, through its planning, during its deliberations, and–as Editor of this volume–after its ending. Her resourcefulness, enthusiasm, and wise leadership greatly contributed to making this impressive Conference, the first of its kind in the Southwest, a success. Others who lent their able assistance to Professor Hayes include Dr. Rodolfo Rodriguez (small groups), Dr. Donna D. Tynan (registration), Dr. Chester E. Gorton (luncheon), Dr. Don R. Whitmore (exhibits), Dr. Ronald E. Fritsch (student coordinator), Dr. Michael J. Wiebe (program), and Dr. Marjorie Chapman (banquet). Special mention goes to Mrs. Dorthy Willhite, Federation secretary, of her important contributions.

Because of the cooperation among the facilities of the three universities in the Federation and the special dedication of the Bilingual/ESL Program Development Committee, this Conference provided a public forum through which recent research and innovative practices could be shared among scholars, researchers and innovative academicians. Without the research and the presentation of that research this Conference would not have been possible. Those who shared their work then offer it here for further consideration.

–William E. Tanner, Ph.D.
Federation, Director of Special Projects

Preface

The urgent educational needs of exceptional children and adolescents, both the handicapped and the gifted, have been the focus of major legal and educational efforts as special educators have sought to overcome the problems of a society in which the atypical are expected to fit the mold of the typical. Likewise, the educational needs of pupils classified as bilingual, bicultural, Limited English Speaking (LES) or Non-English Speaking (NES) have been under similar focus by specialists in bilingual education. Those students who fall in the area of overlap and are either handicapped or gifted and are also bilingual have until recently, been the subject of fragmented effort at best.

While estimates of the size of each of the two separate population can be given (limited of course by reporting and definitional factors), most authorities respond with dismay to the problem of attempting to estimate the numbers of bilingual exceptional pupils. In addition, to the problems inherent in ordinary diagnostic situations, the issue of primary language influences on assessments casts a heavy shadow on the accuracy of even the best estimates. Since *Diana vs. California State Board of Education* (1970),[1] educators have been required to recognize what had surely been patently obvious to teachers for years: Language and cultural differences had so confounded assessment that normal bilingual students often appeared intellectually handicapped, and highly gifted students' formal test scores frequently were merely ordinary. In my own research (Jacobs and Pierce, 1966), I found that bilingual children scored significantly higher on verbal tests of creativity than did monolingual students, although their potential was probably untapped by such testing.[2]

Frequently, specialists from the separate fields of Special Education and Bilingual Education found themselves working with some of the same students who were both handicapped and bilingual. In some cases, jurisdictional questions arose, with each field wanting the other to serve the student exclusively or first, and wanting to offer first service or exclusive service themselves in other cases. The gifted bilingual student was too frequently underserved or unserved. Inevitably, the two fields must work together, not serially, if the true potential of the bilingual exceptional child is to be reached.

In late 1982 the Special Education and Bilingual Education/ESL Program Development Committees of the Federation of North Texas Area Universities elected to sponsor a joint conference focusing on matters of mutual concern to theorists and practitioners in their fields. Under the auspices of the Federation and the leadership of Dr. William E. Tanner, Director of Special Projects, the two committees, made up of representatives of the three member universities met, discussed, organized, and presented a conference featuring speakers with national and regional expertise in working with students who are both exceptional and bilingual.

This volume represents a sampling of the presentations of that conference. Some, such as Rick Strot's lively and well attended workshop on the use of puppets as a tool in language development for bilingual exceptional children, simply did not lend themselves to print. Others were informal panels of critical issues brought from the floor and not recorded. One session was a report on research in progress, not completed in time for publication here. Some, unfortunately, were simply not made available by the presentors for publication, although speakers were aware that

publication was expected.

Thanks are due to many participants who made this joint conference a remarkable success. Students, faculty, and secretarial staff from Bilingual Education and Special Education worked many extra hours preparing materials, contacting speakers, providing transportation, and coordinating many aspects of the conference, from long before the six language greetings at the opening session; through the programs, Mexican dances by elementary students, the banquet, and the closing; until after the last display was packed away. Very special appreciation goes to Dr. William E. Tanner for his superb work in bringing together the efforts of the two departments in each of the three universities to make this a truly cooperative venture representing the Federation of North Texas Area Universities.

–Marnell L. Hayes, Ed.D.
Chair, Special Education Program
Development Committee 1982-1983
Federation of North Texas Area Universities

Notes

[1] *Diana v. State Board of Education*, Civil Action No. C-70 37RFP (N.D. Cal. January 7, 1970, and June 18, 1973).

[2] John F. Jacobs and Marnell L. Pierce, "Bilingualism and Creativity," *Elementary English* 43 (1966), pp. 499-503.

The Challenge:
Providing Quality Special Education Services To Linguistic Minority Students

A Keynote Address

by

Maria de Lourdes B. Serpa, Ed.D.

Regis College

It is a pleasure to be here at this conference on Bilingual Special Education, as an integrated (new) field which of course borrows from both Bilingual and Special Education, but in itself does not mean that it equals the sum of its parts. I would like to start by reading a favorite poem of mine which seems to tell us, that regardless of our differences–cultural or otherwise–we are all people. The poem reads:

We are people, you and I
Like the people passing by;
We're alike, but different too,
I am I, and you are you.

We are all one family,
Light or dark, as it may be,
All are equal on this earth
When we measure human worth.

We all laugh when we feel gay,
Each one laughing his own way,
Some laugh low and some laugh high,
Some as if they're going to cry.

We all think, but separately,
And we needn't all agree;
We all listen, speak, compare,
All have different thoughts to share.

Different, different, yet the same:
When we want to play a game
We must all accept the rules
Though we come from different schools.

We are people, you and I
Like the people passing by,
Same but different, different, same
My name's _____, what's your name?

As the poem goes, different and yet the same, we all have basic needs regardless of cultural background or learning abilities. *Therefore a Challenge*.

One of our greatest challenges as educators is the task of providing the most appropriate and effective educational experiences and programs for various student populations. Among these are those students from a non-English background, also known as "Linguistic Minority Students" or "Limited English Proficient" (LEP)—this includes children who are native born American or from immigrant groups, and those whose language abilities may range from no English to mostly English. However, *regardless of these children's English knowledge*, some have special learning difficulties and need Special Education services, which means *specialized instruction*. Thus, I will share my perception of realities in the State of the Art in the Education of Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Student with Special Needs, where we are, where we are going, and how we may get there.

Where We Are

Certain realities exist in the public schools throughout the U.S.A.

1. Language Minority (L.M.) is growing rapidly. Up to the year 2000, the number of Language Minority students is expected to increase 40%, whereas the number of school age children will increase only 16% (Landurand, 1983). Consequently, the number of these students with Special Needs also will increase.

2. A second reality is that many students with or without Special Needs are receiving inappropriate services and could be called an *unserved* or at best an *underserved* population.

a. For example, General Bilingual Education Programs only reach ½ of the 2.4 million L.M. students between five and fourteen years of age (Landurand, 1983).

b. Bilingual means different things to different people. Program implementation varies, as does its context and philosophy. As an example, I have seen a so-called "Bilingual Program" where English as a Second Language is the only approach used–thus making the program monolingual-English, in my opinion–where eight year olds are learning one letter a week. Can you imagine how long it is going to take for them to be able to read?

c. On the other hand, we know that school learning is *language based*. Language (visual or oral) therefore is used as a means of communication to transmit information. However, oftentimes schools deny access to further learning to LEP students by ignoring or denying their cultural background and also by providing instruction *via* a language that the student does not understand, thus definitely contributing to furthering his/her "academic retardation". It is one thing to attach labels to concepts already known, but another to learn new concepts which vary in their cognitive demands and corresponding labels.

d. Time spent in school with each language may be inadequate, specially for pre-school and primary education school children in Bilingual Education. Often, they are not given a fair chance of achieving "threshold level" in either L_1 or L_2 (Cummins, 1980, 1981) and may become limited in both languages, ending up very often in Special Education.

3. *Misclassification of LEP students with Needs*

a. Many pupils from a non-English background attending an English-only program have been over-represented (Mercer, 1971), and inappropriately placed in Special Education, as was, for example, the famous Dr. Leo Buscaglia. In a monolingual English school environment, typical behaviors of LEP students with a different language/culture, learning English as a Second Language have been inappropriately interpreted as characteristics of so-called "learning disability": disorders of attention and memory, unable to follow directions, etc., when the reason very often is because of the fact that the Limited English Proficient student and his/her teacher has little or limited communication due to a difference in the language/culture. Consequnetly, many LEP students have been referred to and placed in (English) Special Education. *Example*: a Vietnamese boy was placed in an (English) Special Education classroom after three months of monolingual English instruction. The student's evaluation report stated "____ is learning disabled". After review of his records, it was established that based on his performance, he was never a Special Education case, but a child in the process of learning another language.

b. I.Q. testing has had a major negative impact on LEP students. I.Q. test results (or inadequate interpretation thereof) have been responsible for (1) mislabeling children as "smart" or "stupid"—thus affecting teacher expectations, placement in class, and ultimately, determining a child's future (*Testing Digest*, 1981, p. 3), and (2) over-representation of Language Minority Students in Special Education classes (Mercer, 1971) which also affects these children's future. Recently, I.Q. test results were also identified as the factor which "still tips the scale" on a student's placement decision (Smith and Knoff, 1981).

It is apparent that most educators today seem to agree that the I.Q. tests have limitations; that contrary to innate potential I.Q. tests measure "academic potential" (Cummins, 1982) or "present [a] level of intellectual functioning" (Lapp & Flood, 1978) which, I would like to add, are in a particular language/culture context.

"No one knows exactly what the components of native intelligence are" (*Testing Digest*, 1981, p. 3), and one's performance seems to be determined by environmental factors, as well as biological ones (Cummins. 1982; Lapp & Flood, 1978; and others). Indicators of intelligence are not universal and definitions vary. For example: Binet and Simon, "fathers" of I.Q. testing, defined intelligence in 1916 as the "capacity to judge well, to reason well, and to comprehend well." Wechsler in 1974, defined intelligence as "the overall capacity of an individual to understand and cope with the world around him." However, in 1975, Wechsler explained that *intelligence has been viewed in different ways by different people: by biologists as the ability to adapt, by psychologists as the ability to deduce relationships, by computer scientists as the facility to process information, and by educators as the ability to learn.*

It is important to realize that the history of intelligence testing is a short one. It has been around for less than a century. Credit is usually given to Alfred Binet in France who with Simon published the first intelligence tests in 1905. Some years later, the Binet Scales were brought to the United States of America and then translated literally into English. (This process is similar to what has been done with several English tests used now in native languages for Assessment of Limited English Proficient students in American schools.) Interestingly enough, Chase (1978) explains, very well, that

it was soon evident, however, that cultural differences between France and America made the

tests somewhat inappropriate for general use in the United States. Therefore, in 1916 Lewis Terman published the Sanford Revision of the Binet Scales. Terman used many items from Binet's test, but also devised many of his own. (p. 24)

4. This brings us to the fourth reality, *assessment procedures currently in use*. There are many of issues related to this reality, but I will focus on the following:

a. There is a need to redefine "normal" from a culturally diverse perspective.

b. There is a need for comprehensive assessment procedures that sample student's behaviors from a wholistic perspective. Often in monolingual situation, assessments are fragmented. They remind me of "Blind Men and the Elephant":

It was six men of Indostan
to learning much inclined,
Who went to see the elephant
(though all of them were blind)
That each by observation might
satisfy his mind.

The first approached the elephant
and happening to fall
Against his broad and sturdy side,
at once began to bawl:
"God bless me, but the elephant
is nothing but a wall."

The second feeling of the tusk,
cried, "Ho! What have we here
So very round and smooth and sharp?
To me 'tis mighty clear
This wonder of an elephant is
very much like a spear!"

The third approached the animal

and happening to take
The squirming trunk within his hands
thus boldly up and spake,
Quoth he, "I see this elephant
is very much like a snake."

The fourth reached out his eager hand
and felt about the knee:
"What most this wondrous beast is like
is mighty plain," quoth he:
"Tis clear enough the elephant
is very much like a tree."

The sixth no sooner had begun
about the beast to grope
Then seizing on the swinging tail
that fell within his scope,
"I see," quoth he, "the elephant
is very much like a rope."

And so these men of Indostan
disputed loud and long.
Each in his own opinion,
exceeding stiff and strong.
Though each was partly in the right
all were in the wrong!

So oft in theologic war,
the disputants I ween
Rail on in utter ignorance
of what each other mean,
An prate about an elephant,
NOT ONE OF THEM HAS SEEN!

Not only is there a need for comprehensive assessment evaluation procedures of each student as a whole person, but also within his/her own cultural context and background experience. Even though fair assessment procedures have been mandated by P.L. 94-142, they seem to

be dealt with in various ways. When one focuses on the tests being administered in the native language to the LEP student, many problems arise, because it seems that in some cases, not even the letter of the law is being implemented.

Coulopoulos and DeGeorge (1982) in their research on the "Current Methods and Practices of School Psychologists in the Assessment of Linguistic Minority Children" in Massachusetts, found that

- The WISC-R is among the six[4] most frequently used tests.

- Few of the school psychologists testing the students were bilingual. Even though the WISC-R (among others) is reported as being administered in several languages (*i.e.* Spanish, Portuguese, and Greek), and, no formalized procedure (however inadequate) was indicated. Some school psychologists seek help from a bilingual teacher, while others give it "in English with pantomime." (p. 12)

- In general, although a wide range of tests is used, most school psychologists who responded tended to use the same six tests most frequently.

- All of the six most frequently employed tests used, for both the Limited English Proficient as well as native English speaking students.

These practices are a cause of concern because they will most surely negatively affect the lives and futures of the students involved. English standardized measures are not as objective (not to say valid) as they seem–especially for the LEP student.

There are several factors related to one's performance on these tests. Test results may be influenced by such examiner variables as:

- Non-verbal cues, including physical and psychological attributes (Rosenthal, 1966).

- Style of administration and ethnic group membership (Fernandez, 1971).

- Degree of bilingualism and bi/multiculturalism. Some examiners have been observed as speaking the language well, but were not familiar with the culture, *e.g.* "o que e que pica?" (malagueta) / "O que e que corre?" (iron).

- Interpreter – with a monolingual examiner
  – with or without training in giving the test
  – degree of bilingualism. Some very eloquent English bilingual interpreters when they speak in other languages, for example, are less than proficient.

On the other hand, results may also be influenced by linguistics, cultural background experience, and by which norms are used. At the linguistic level, for example, it is crucial to take a close look at the translations being used which in many cases are verbatim–thus posing more problems than solutions. DAC BE (1977) points out

- Regional differences within a language make it almost impossible to use a single translation.

•Monolingual translations may prove inappropriate because (1) the language familiar to the non-English speaking person may be a combination of both L_1 plus English, and, (2) many may have not learned to read in L_1 even though they speak it.

•The direct translation of a word or phrase in one language may result in a word which is not used with the "same frequency or have the same potency in another language. In addition, it can also vastly alter its meaning."

In addition, it should be pointed out that the *mode of translation* used, (1) written or (2) oral (at the moment of testing) may also have a great impact on the testee responses. I have found myself translating the same concept in different ways at different times. Thus, if one does not have a written record of what was said along with the response given, it becomes nearly impossible to analyze it qualitatively.

Where Are We Going

There is a need to emphasize that special education decisions ought to be made on the basis of what the student and the student's family needs are—maximizing on their background experience. More appropriate assessment procedures (formal and informal) must be established.

I would like to offer some suggestions for the assessment of the Limited English proficient

1. A second language issue should not be confused

with a learning problem.

2. Please make sure that when selecting an interpreter s/he is someone (1) who can relate to children; (2) who has been trained for the task; (3) who possesses an appropriate level of proficiency in the target language; and, (4) who in addition to being bilingual is at least bicultural.

3. Do not rely on oral translations on the spot. If a written version of the particular instrument to be used is not available, then either have (1) testing sessions taped, so that one can go back and analyse further the student's responses in the context of given stimulus; or, (2) have the interpreter write the translation of adaptation in target language as well as the student's responses.

4. The translation or adaptation of a test to another language must be reviewed by at least one or two particular L_1 educators.

5. Make sure that assessment results are interpreted in the context of the child's background experience, culture and school experience.

6. Make sure that a home assessment in the appropriate language is part of the procedure.

7. Make good use of good informal assessment.

8. Report writing should include, among other things:
   - Language proficiency
   - Type of norms used (L_1 or English)
   - Type of translation method used: written

– or oral.

–Make recommendations for instructions on the basis of sound pedagogical principles from an integration of Special Education practices with the effectiveness of learning in two languages. After all, "learning comes in all languages."

From Assessment to Program Planning

There is a need to emphasize that in program planning, strengths ought to be used to help areas of difficulty, and that language selected for instruction (in a dual language context) becomes a very important factor to consider for the LEP student with Special Needs if s/he is to have success in the academic setting.

I have observed that instructional strategies otherwise effective used in the inappropriate language, become often cognitively overwhelming and thus contribute to the student's lack of progress. For some insight into planning and using each student's strength to maximize growth, cognitively or affectively, let's look at the "Animal Curriculum Fable":

> Once upon a time, the animals had a school. The curriculum consisted of classes in running, climbing, flying, and swimming. All the animals were required to take all the classes.
>
> The duck was a good swimming student–better, in fact, than the instructors. He made passing grades in flying, but particularly hopeless in running. Because he was low in the subject, he was made to stay after school and drop his swimming classes in order to practice running. He kept this up until he was only

average in swimming. But as educators, we all know that average is acceptable, so no one worried much about it. No one—but the poor duck.

The eagle was considered to be a problem pupil, and was always being severly disciplined. He beat all others to the tops of the trees in climbing classes—but he had used his own way of getting there.

The rabbit started out at the head of the class in running, but he had a nervous breakdown and dropped out of school because of so much make-up work in swimming.

The squirrel led the class in climbing, but his teacher made him start his flying lessons from the ground up rather than from the top down. The poor thing developed charley horses from over-exertion at take off and began getting failing grades in both climbing and running.

The practical prairie dogs apprenticed their offspring to a badger when the local school board refused to add digging to the school curriculum.

At the end of the school year, the abnormal eel that could swim, walk, run, climb, and fly was given the honor of being made valedictorian of the class.

And, so the LEP student with or without Special Needs, needs to be respected in his/her cultural background, and to feel that s/he is of worth as any other from any other culture in the country—so that s/he does not become alienated from him/herself.

If we believe in the most appropriate education in the least restrictive environment, if we believe in cultural democracy where difference is not a deficiency but an avenue of personal and shared growth, then today is a time for action.

What are some of the actions we can take ***immediately****?*

1. Allow P.L. 94-142 to work for the Limited English

Proficient students and their families so that programs are developed to meet the needs of these students in the least restrictive environment.

2. Ascertain the information needed. What is happening? What needs to be done locally? and at the state level?

3. Provide guidelines in coordination of Bilingual and Special Education Administrations.

4. Develop competency standards from a cultural and socio-linguistic perspectives.

5. Disseminate information on the findings of current research on the use of two languages as an effective approach to education.

6. Encourage teachers to get involved as researchers in their Bilingual Special Education classrooms.

All children from English or non-English backgrounds deserve an appropriate education in which their basic human needs are met and their rights respected. Therefore, a challenge: *Are we ready to begin?*

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BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION: ISSUES IN STUDENT PLACEMENT

by

Sheryl L. Santos, PhD.
East Texas State University

and

Roberto A. Santos
Dallas Independent School District

Introduction

The focus of our presentation will be issues related to the placement of minority-language students into special education classes from the point of view of a "front line" special education practitioner with some supporting evidence from what has been documented and reported in the literature. The purpose of this presentation is to begin to openly discuss concerns, impressions, and common practices in special education placement which are at odds with stated laws and policies designed to safeguard the rights of the handicapped students and their families. Many of the opinions, impressions, and views expressed in this presentation are based upon personal observations and experiences and should be accepted as such. By creating an atmosphere of openness we may begin to truly perceive some of the problems in placement as vestiges of institutional racism and discrimination. Hopefully, awareness of the issues will lead to their solutions.

Cultural Pluralism vs the Melting Pot

Most of the issues we will be discussing can be better understood if we analyze them first from a broad perspective. Upon examining the responsiveness (or lack of same) of our educational system to students from minority cultures in general, we cannot deny, that until very recently there was very little attempt, if any, to develop in our public school personnel a true sense of appreciation or understanding regarding the culturally pluralistic nature of our school population. Children who spoke Spanish were chastised; Blacks were faced with stereotyped images and myths depicting their cultural heritage as "deficient" or

"disadvantaged." Other non-English-speaking youth were treated as inferiors to their English-speaking peers. The examples are numerous. Our system operated upon the pervasive "melting pot" conceptualization of American society. Anglo conformity and dominance took precedence over cultural democracy and equality (Banks, 1983).

What does all this have to do with issues in student placement?: *Everything*. Each of the issues we examine can ultimately be attributed to the continued wide-spread failure of educational personnel to know, respect, and understand its clientele; the families which entrust their children to us. If we keep this underlying perspective in mind we will better understand how all the issues in student placement piece together; then we will be in a more informed position to solve them.

In spite of the fact that the "melting pot" has been discredited by sociologists, historians, and others, it will take many more decades to filter down new attitudes toward cultural pluralism. Although university teacher training programs are currently feeling pressure by accrediting agencies such as the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the National Texas Agency (TEA), among others, to prepare school personnel to "become more responsive to the human condition, individual cultural integrity, and cultural pluralism in society" (NCATE:14), many administrators, classroom teachers, diagnosticians, and other specialists have had inadequate training in multicultural education, or perhaps are just not truly convinced of the importance of the role of cultural diversity in American education.

In light of the many changes taking place in our society such as: the mobility of the population, the in-

crease in immigration, the single-parent families, high unemployment, an increased reliance on high technology, and other visible factors, the need for educators to effectively meet the challenges of these changes and their effects upon families from many different backgrounds, language groups, socioeconomic levels, and places of origin, becomes increasingly apprent and self-evident. However, no where is the need for sensitivity, understanding, and skill in cross-cultural human relations more pressing than in special education. Why is this so?

Issues in Student Placement

There are many reasons why those directly involved with the assessment, placement, and instruction of "handicapped" learners must be particularly adept at communicating with parents across cultural lines, aware of weaknesses in the testing system, and astute enough to know the difference between a truly learning-disabled student and one who just appears so. However, the most crucial reason is that misplacement into or out of special education can change the entire course of a human life! What, then, are the issues in student placement that we, as special educators and bilingual educators, need to pay careful attention to in order to avoid life-shattering mistakes? We would like to classify these issues into three broad categories: (1) issues related to assessment; (2) issues related to parent-teacher relations; and (3) issues related to parental misconceptions about special education.

Assessment Issues

Although the overrepresentation of minorities in

special education has been substantiated in the literature for more than a decade (Mercer, 1972; Garcia, 1972; Plata & Santos, 1981), time has not alleviated the problem. We are continually alerted to the inaccuracies of I.Q. testing, especially for non-Anglo populations. Mercer (1972: 47) concluded that in order to protect minorities from culturally-biased measures of determining I.Q., both I.Q. and adaptive behavior must be used together to define mental retardation. Yet, many schools continue to rely on I.Q. tests as the sole measure of a student's mental competence.

In the case of students from bilingual backgrounds who have been referred by a classroom teacher for psychological testing, we have the added dimensions of language differences compounded by possible cultural bias. Often times, the referred student seemingly speaks English well enough to fool the teacher into believing that the student's poor academic performance is due to some mental deficiency. This may or may not be true. Nevertheless, from what we now know about the academic performance of bilingual students, there is a direct relationship between the student's level of proficiency in the native language and his or her ability to acquire reading and writing skills in a second language. A student who is illiterate in the home language has less chance of ever becoming literate in a second language. Partial bilingualism has negative cognitive effects on students, while balanced bilingualism actually enhances a student's academic abilities (Calderon, *et al.*, 1982:50). Therefore, placement into a Special Education program may seem indicated based upon academic performance and I.Q. test scores; while, in reality, what the student may need most of all is a literacy program in the

student's native language, followed by English as a second language training to expand the student's communicative competence in English as well. In short, the fact that a student has acquired "basic interpersonal communication skills" (BICS) in English does not necessarily mean that he or she has developed "cognitive academic language proficiency" (CALP) required for successful completion of cognitively demanding, context-reduced tasks in reading and writing (Cummins, 1981).

However, until our negative attitudes toward bilingualism change and bilingual programs help students to become literate in two languages instead of just quickly helping the student to learn English at the expense of his or her native tongue, we will never really be able to expect a true solution to the misplacement of the bilingual student into a class designed for the mentally handicapped. Of course, it will also be very beneficial for special educators to also take at least one course in bilingual education so they might avoid the pitfalls of uninformed assumptions about students' potentials.

Parent-Teacher Relations

According to P.L. 94-142 passed in 1975, parents are entitled to play an integral part in the decision-making process concerning not only appropriate placement, but in all aspects related to identification, evaluation, and curriculum. The law specifically provides for: (1) a non-discriminatory, culturally sensitive assessment, administered only upon consent of the parents or guardians; (2) written notice to parents in their native language concerning meetings and decisions affecting their children; (3) the right of parents to examine all records concerning their

child's educational status; (4) the right of parents to obtain an independent evaluation of their child; (5) the right to a due process hearing called for by parents conducted by an impartial agency whenever a complaint is made against the school district; and (6) parental consent for placement into special education. In summary, the above items are carefully spelled out in the law under the heading of "procedural safeguards."

However, in actual practice, parents are often kept in the dark and at a great disadvantage in their relationships with "professionals." In the first place, the majority of minority-language parents are not even aware of their rights, and those that are, are often so trusting of the "establishment" they would not dare to question a teacher's decision. Oftentimes, parents who attend Admission, Dismissal, and Retention (ARD) Committee meetings, (especially minority-language parents), do not understand the jargon of "Special Educationese" spoken among the participants. The wall between the professional committee members and the parents is seemingly insurmountable. I, personally, have witnessed parents leaving ARD meetings thoroughly confused, frustrated, and frightened.

Rodriquez (1981) poignantly documents the general lack of minority group parental involvement in our public schools. He attributes this to such causes as: (1) a lack of command of the English language; (2) feelings of inadequacy and inferiority when confronted by "experts"; (3) being uniformed about what is actually happening or about their rights, (4) painful prior memories of their own educational failures; and (5) negative attitudes about the possibilities of finding new solutions to old problems.

Until we professionals understand and have compas-

sion for the families we serve we cannot solve these problems. Laws cannot help us nurture our sensitivity; that must come from within, from a personal commitment on the part of each special educator to make sure that parents are comfortable at meetings, knowledgeable at all times about the proceedings, able to ask questions when necessary, and are an integral part of the committee. I would also like to add that, whenever possible, the student also be present at the meetings and that he or she be afforded the same respect as the parents and other adult members in decision-making roles.

Parental Misconceptions About Special Education

The term "special education" is a euphemism, and like all euphemisms, subject to misinterpretations by the uninitiated. What do parents who do not speak too much English believe the concept stands for? Well, I was rather surprised to learn that this term is commonly misunderstood by minority parents who have little contact with schools, they believe their child is a candidate for a "special" program such as an enrichment program or a gifted and talented program. This misunderstanding is a consequence of improperly diagnosing a child as "retarded" or "learning disabled" without first investigating the child's adaptive behavior in his or her home environment. Many times the bilingual child is "retarded" at school while being a model child at home with his family, friends, and other significant others. It is only when the parent attends the ARD meeting, if at all, that he or she becomes aware of the true meaning of this term and its implications.

Many parents do not ever attend ARD meetings. I

have seen cases whereby the student, too ashamed to admit that his parents do not know any English, will deliberately tell school officials to send home notices in English, not Spanish. Parents can even remain uninformed for years. The student himself brings home all notices, translates what he wants to translate, omits any incriminating information that would make his parents suspicious, asks them reassuringly to sign on the dotted line, and returns the letter back to school the next day.

This charade can continue until the student either graduates or leaves school upon reaching adulthood. Even report cards are misleading to parents. They see "A's" and "B's" and believe their child is doing wonderfully. Little do they suspect that he is competing for grades in classes with "retarded" learners.

All of this might seem very strange to some of you. However, I can assure you that these are not isolated cases. Non-English-speaking parents are often at the mercy of their own children, who will go to great lengths to protect their parents from the truth and the shame that they feel about their educational problems and status.

What is the solution? It is not too difficult to figure out. I believe that teachers need to establish close contacts with parents. If they continually notice the non-presence of parents at meetings, at school functions, or at open-house, a "friendly" investigation should ensue personally carried out by the teacher or his or her designate. In this way, through close and meaningful contact, parental misconceptions can be avoided or alleviated.

Conclusion

The challenge of providing bilingual special education

services in our public schools are numerous but not unaccomplishable. We believe the challenge of proper placement decisions can be met only as more and more teachers, administrators, and diagnosticians commit themselves to the goals and ideals of multicultural education and to the all-encompassing concept of cultural pluralism. Plata and Santos (1981:99) recommend that each local district carry out a self-study to determine whether or not the needs of linguistically-differnt special learners are being adequately met. We would like to encourage each of you to self-appraise your situation using the following criteria as a guide:

Placement Decisions

1. What are the alternative program placements that will be used to meet the "least restrictive environment" criteria stipulated in P.L. 94-142 and P.L 93-516?

2. What criteria will be used to reach a placement decision?

3. What procedures will be used to ensure that procedural safeguards are followed?

4. If special education is merited:

    a. What procedures will be used to ensure adequate parental participation in the placement process?

    b. What procedures will be used to ensure that parents adequately understand the appraisal and placement information and its ramifications?

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WHERE DO NATIVE LANGUAGE INTERFERENCE PROBLEMS END – AND DEVELOPMENTAL PROBLEMS BEGIN?

by

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First of all it must be made clear that the matters of native language interference and developmental problems are quite different from one another, even though they are often treated as one.

Native language interference stems from a different set of factors: the influence of the (a) tone system, (b) sound system, (c) sound patterns, (d) syntactic patterns, and (e) semantics of the first language gets in the way of clear auditory reception and articulation of the second language. In psychology, this "getting in the way" is called *proactive interference*. That is, some previous knowledge interferes with new, but similar, knowledge being studied.

Language interference, then, stems from something a learner *knows*. It is actually a positive force. Rules of the first language are holding fast in the face of exposure to a new language.

Developmental problems stem from something a learner does *not* know. *The mechanical skills for particular language operations have not yet been developed.*

An individual with developmental problems calls for a language assessment procedure to be carried out simply to determine the starting point for teaching. At this point it is critical that the language used for assessing be the one in which a maximum of developmental determinations can be made.

It would seem appropriate that a teacher whose specialty is the education of bilingual exceptional children would tend to describe most of the difficulties of special education learners as developmentally based. For the last thirty years, most linguists have been approaching the topic of the interaction of language in education from a contrastive analysis point of view; That is, they first com-

pare the native language of the students with the second language of instruction in order to describe the structural differences between them, predict which elements of the second language will be most troublesome for students from a particular background, and then order these troublesome elements for systematic and efficient instruction. Such predictive information assists in planning, selection, and preparation of materials.

A focus, then, on determining problems of linguisitic interference may well clear up the learning pains for a great number of pupils. The obvious linguistically based problems could be taken care of first; then a highly specialized approach could be prepared for developmental problems.

W.J. Lewis (1982) presents a developmental model for the sequence of language acquisition. He declares that from birth to eighteen months a human records all the sounds of the native tongue. Then from eighteen months to thirty-six months morphological patterns are acquired. From thirty-six months to five years, syntax is picked up, he points out, and from five years of age throughout life, semantics is developed and refined.

His model is a developmental gem. It implies that it would be a waste of time to present lessons on syntax or semantics if the foundation skills of hearing sounds and sound patterns are not first reasonably developed. His model can be interpreted to mean that a second language might be taught better if the same sequence would be followed:

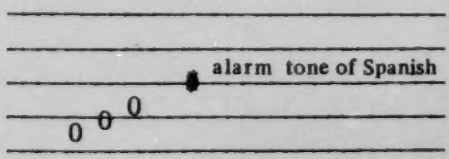
(a) sounds,
(b) sound patterns,
(c) word order,
then (d) meaning.

A study centering on speech tone perception in infants[1] shows that within four to six weeks infants begin to echo back the tone range of the mother tongue.

Several babies with different linguistic experiences were placed in individual cribs side by side. A group of women matching the language background of the infants was gathered. From the group, one woman at a time who had the same language background as one of the children was asked to don a blindfold, then walk along the row and lean over each crib to listen to the infants cooing. The purpose was to see if they could determine which of the infants shared their language background. They were highly successful at identifying the children. The findings convincingly showed that humans experience and respond to the sounds of the mother tongue quite early in life. Experiment revealed possibility that infants learn language tone ranges much earlier than expected.

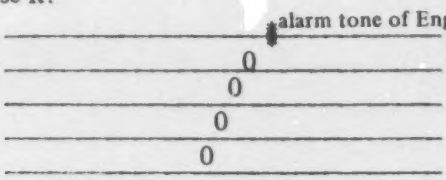
Robert Politzer (1961) describes some important characteristics of language tone systems comparing range and function of Spanish and English.

He places both ranges on a musical staff. Spanish is described as a four tone language, beginning in the first space (f), then going to the second line (g), the second space (a), and finally, to the third line (b)–but Politzer notes the (b) is used only in cases of anger, alarm, fright, or for expressing other moments of negative excitement.*



*Men are not allowed to use the fourth tone. It is considered un-

English is described as a five-tone language which also begins in the first space. But there is a note skipped between each tone of English making the range more spread out as the tones go from space to space. The *fifth* tone represents anger, alarm, etc. and both men and women are free to use it!



It can be easily observed that by the time English talk reaches its normal third tone (c), it has already passed the alarm tone of Spanish (b)!

The obvious implications are:

1. To English ears, Spanish will sound flat and monotonous, with Spanish-speaking males sounding particularly flat.

2. To Spanish ears, English will sound loud and angry, with English-speaking men sounding particularly loud.

From the Lewis model and the Eimas, *et al.*, study and the work of Politzer, it can be reasonably supposed that the systems and the feelings of tones are implanted very early in life and that it would require steadfast, patient teaching techniques to effect changes or additions to that aspect of language.

An aspect of contrasting the English and Spanish sound systems focusing on word endings was examined and discussed by Olguin (1979) as part of a doctoral dissertation on second language acquisition.

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manly. The tone is reserved for women.

The contrast was numerically large as well as linguistically overwhelming.

In Spanish there are mainly ten ways to end words: i, e, a, o, u, l, r, n, s, and d. When the word ending happens to be one of the listed consonants, it (the ending) must be preceded by a vowel. Therefore, no words in Spanish end with a cluster of consonants. English, on the other hand, has an exceedingly high incidence of consonant cluster endings. Olguin found 371 possible ways to end words in English, mostly because of the large number of consonant word endings.

The enormous difference of ten word endings in Spanish, and 371 in English suggests that Spanish speakers might have particular problems with the auditory reception and oral expression of the unaccustomed to endings. As part of a comprehensive sound diagnostic test, Olguin tested 127 first and second grade Hispanics in a quest to measure the relationship between their ability to hear English word endings and achieve well on the reading section of the California Achievement Test. A coefficient of .44 indicated that it is a statistically significant language factor to be considered when adding the skills of English to a Hispanic.

The Hispanic special education child appears before teachers with unknown quantities of (a) linguistic interference factors, and (b) developmental delay conditions. The currently sharpened focus on working with the bilingual special education child should clearly classify the linguistic interference factors as one set of tasks, and the developmental delay factors as a distinct other set of tasks before launching into teaching.

As Dr. Bergin pointed out, Bilingual Special Ed children are between the disciplines of Special Education

and Bilingual Education. They are depending on us to pool our backgrounds to form a new force which will move them closer to the fullest possible participation in society.

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ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES IN THE IDENTIFICATION OF THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT GIFTED STUDENT

by

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Given a normal distribution, five percent of the population of any cultural group in any society could be defined as gifted or talented. As defined by the New Mexico Standards for Special Education (1982), a gifted child is one who is identified as possessing abilities that give evidence of outstanding performance capability in areas such as intelligence, critical thinking, creativity, or academics. However, minority groups do not comprise anywhere near five percent of the students being served in gifted programs in most American schools in the United States. This underrepresentation of minority children in programs for the gifted and talented has provided impetus for the current interest in improved practices for identifying gifted minority students. In the past traditional means of identification have been used for entry into gifted programs. Now, however, one major approach in improved identification is to describe the characteristics unique to the culturally different and to the gifted within the minority groups. Then these characteristics serve as the basis for identification. This paper will survey some of the assessment techniques being used in the identification of the culturally different gifted student.

Traditional methods of identification of gifted children have included standardized I.Q. tests, teacher recommendations and parent questionnaires, either singly or in some combination. For identification of gifted minority students we know that these methods alone are not acceptable. Standardized I.Q. tests have been shown time and again to be biased against minority/disadvantaged children because they have been standardized on the dominant, white, middle-class culture. Teachers tend to recommend for inclusion in gifted programs those children who are the best behaved and well dressed of their students. Again

many minority gifted children, especially those from low socioeconomic backgrounds will not fit into these categories. Identification of gifted minority children cannot and should not be limited to tests of intelligence. "A variety of techniques, procedures, and instruments. . .might be used. . . . It is the creation of pupil products which contributes to self-identification and since product development is a continuous one, identification is also seen as a continuous process rather than a single-event test administration." (Passow, 1981, p. 9). Clark (1982) in her study to determine giftedness in lower socioeconomic Mexican-American students found that non-traditional measures of identification proved to be significantly better at nominating those students who were then subsequently identified as gifted. Only one student was identified as gifted using traditional procedures while the non-traditional procedure revealed 45 gifted students out of a sample of 110 third grade students.

The literature on gifted minority children tends to emphasize the positive characteristics of such children as an aid in their identification. Torrance (1977) has argued that the outstanding "positives" which characterize gifted minority students are their creative abilities. Based on studies involving his *Tests of Creative Thinking*, summer workshops with culturally different students, and the work of others, Torrance (1977) developed a list of characteristics called "creative positives" that may be used to help identify culturally different gifted children. He argued that in "searching for gifted individuals among the disadvantaged populations, you are likely to have better success if you seek them in . . . [other] than traditional ways" (p. 201). And that we "seek those types of giftedness that are highly valued by the particular disadvantaged

subculture" (p. 295). His creative positives which he has found to exist to high degrees in disadvantaged children and upon which successful educational programs can be built and the potentialities of the children can be put to optimal use include:

1 Ability to express feelings
2 Ability to improvise with common-place materials
3 Articulate in role playing, creative activities
4 Enjoyment and ability in art, drawing, painting, etc.
5 Enjoyment and ability in creative dramatics, dance, etc.
6 Enjoyment and ability in music
7 Expessiveness in speech
8 Fluency and flexibility in nonverbal media
9 Enjoyment and skills in group learning and problem solving
10 Responsiveness to the concrete
11 Responsiveness to the kinesthetic
12 Expessiveness of gestures, "body language," etc.
13 Humor
14 Richness of imagery in informal language
15 Originality of ideas in problem solving, brainstorming
16 Problem – centeredness
17 Emotional responsiveness
18 Quickness of warm-up

Bernal (1978) developed a similar list specific to the identification of gifted Mexican-American children. Within an anthropological framework, questionnaires were

administered to adolescent and adult bilingual residents of barrios in three Texas metropolitan areas to determine their perceptions of giftedness. Resulting characteristics included rapid acquisition of English; leadership ability (unobtrusive); enjoyment of intelligent risk taking; ability to keep busy and entertained, especially with imaginative games made from simple toys; exceptional maturity and responsibility; and street-wiseness.

Hall and Skinner (1980) have developed a list of characteristics which parents may observe and bring to the attention of school personnel. It includes the following behaviors:

1 Has displayed unusal talent in music, drawing, rhythms, and other art forms.
2 Asks many "intelligent questions" about topics in which young children do not ordinarily have an interest.
3 Keen observation and retention of information about things s/he has observed.
4 The ability to concentrate for a longer period of time than other children his/her age.
5 An early interest in clocks and calendars, and an ability to understand their function.
6 The early accurate use of a large vocabulary.
7 Spoke in entire sentences at an unusually early age.
8 The ability to tell or reproduce stories and events with great detail at an early age.
9 Carries on intelligent conversations with older children and adults.
10 Learned to read early with little or no formal teaching.

11 Can write short stories, poems, letters. (pp. 7-9)

In addition to using the lists provided by Torrance, Bernal, Hall and Skinner, literature on the identification of culturally different gifted children emphasizes use of multiple criteria (Kaplan, 1975; Sato, 1974) and case study approaches (Renzulli & Smith, 1977). Bernal (1978) also argues for identification procedures based on the principle of inclusion, wherein a child who qualifies as gifted on one count is admitted to the gifted program.

In 1971, Snow asserted that the identification of gifted and talented is a problem at any time and yet is much greater when two widely dissimilar cultures are involved. Snow was involved in research with Navajo children and he pointed out that when one culture has a different language, religion, life style, and view of the world, the identification of gifted is further complicated. He noted that the language and way of thinking of the Navajo is very different from that of Anglos particularly in certain abstract and conceptual cognitive modes.

Catherine Bruch in 1975 offered suggestions for measuring creativity in the culturally different students. She referred to the study by Bernal and Reyna in which they researched the creative abilities valued by the Mexican-American gifted students. Bruch also maintained that creative style qualities such as problem solving, persistence, flexibility, risk-taking, playfulness, humor, with special attention to creative use of language could be observed and measured for identification purposes.

Asking the question, "What Makes Giftedness?" Renzulli and Smith in 1977, analyzed data on giftedness and proposed a new definition of giftedness. They includ-

ed a cluster of traits that had been lumped together under the label "creativity." The idea that gifted minority children's strengths lie in creativity is particularly interesting in light of the evidence presented in Getzel's and Dillon's (1973) research that suggested that high creative and high IQ groups perform equally well on standard measures of achievement although there is a 23 point difference in IQ scores.

And in a 1980 study, researchers Chamber, Barron and Sprecher examined a method for identifying gifted Mexican-American children. They presented evidence that many states use student's IQ scores for admission to gifted programs. The authors noted that the use of IQ scores implies that giftedness is the demonstration of high level convergent thinking abilities. This assumption must be questioned especially in view of the penalties such culturally loaded verbal devices place on culturally diverse students. Using the Wallach-Kogan Tests of Creativity, along with other tests and teacher ratings, the researchers were able to identify a substantial number of Mexican-American children with potential for future contributions of a high intellectual/creative nature.

Several authors have described Mexican-American children as possessing learning styles and motivational characteristics different from children in the mainstream. Kagan and Zahn (1975) and Ramirez and Price-Williams (1976) have presented evidence, for example, that Mexican-American children possess a significantly more field dependent cognitive style than their Anglo counterparts, which may negatively affect math achievement. Ramirez and Castaneda (1974) contrasted the achievement orientation of Anglo and Mexican-American children, with Anglo children having a more developed sense of personal

achievement. Mexican-American children, on the other hand, are described as being more motivated for group or family achievement. And research findings have supported the characterization of Mexican-American children as more cooperative than their more competitive Anglo peers (*e.g.*, Avellar & Kagan, 1976; Kagan & Madsen, 1970). However, it is not clear from the available literature whether *gifted* Mexican-American children demonstrate field dependence and an orientation toward family achievement and cooperation.

In 1978, Joyce Gay proposed a plan for the identification of Black gifted children. She observed that Black gifted children share common characteristics with other gifted children, but there are differences in the manifestations of some of the characteristics. Based on her experience as a teacher of Black children for 20 years she devised a comparative list of manifestations of giftedness. According to Gay's plan for identification of Black gifted students, heavy weight would be placed on the results of the Torrance test of Creative Thinking. Her descriptions of characteristics of gifted children and youth were found in the literature and she made some generalizations of how these characteristics are manifested in Black gifted children. This list has been expanded to include Mexican-American children. (See Table 1)

Early identification is extremely important for all gifted children but especially for minority children. The high drop-out rate of minority students indicates that a greater number of gifted minority children are alienated by their experiences in a nonresponsive educational system than their white middle-class counterparts (Bernal, 1974). All children come to school with a great wealth of information and experiences that their teachers know little or

nothing about. This is especially true of minority gifted children. The minority gifted children must be made to feel that their culture and experiences are worth while; parents can participate in this process. They can help the classroom teachers capitalize on the experiences and information their minority gifted students bring to school. Torrance (1978) suggested that by allowing minority gifted students and their parents to teach others, the curriculum is enriched for all. At the same time, the gifted children are given the chance to teach the things for which they are most motivated and at which they are most skilled.

Involving minority parents in the identification process of their child is important because each cultural group has its own perceptions of giftedness. In his cross-cultural study of giftedness in the Mexican-American community, Bernal (1974) found that characteristics attributed to the gifted Mexican-American child were of a behavioral nature instead of the traditional view of intelligence. Data from the interviews revealed that the Mexican-American community did not make a clear distinction between giftedness and talent, as has been found in the literature. Instead, the distinction occurred in the behavior of gifted children as they interacted with an adult at an adult level or exhibited a distinct style as well as intelligence (Clark, 1981, p. 27).

In conclusion, there are still many more questions to be asked and answered about identification of minority gifted. However, a beginning has been made and it is clear that non-traditional methods of identification are more appropriate than those measures that have previously been used. Currently in a study being conducted with minority gifted children in a pre-school setting, observations suggest

that the minority gifted children's observed creativity is consistent with their creativity scores and that a greater proportion of the minority children display creative behaviors (fluency, flexibility, originality, and elaboration in movement, figural and mechanical settings). These findings support the relevant literature in which gifted minority children have been characterized as having strengths in creativity and problem solving in concrete situations. And the performance of these minority gifted children gives credence to Torrance (1978) who stated:

> . . . For some time, I have been experiencing a dawning realization that in the future we shall have to depend upon creatively gifted members of disadvantaged and minority cultures for most of our creative achievements. In a way, this may have been true all along. To be a part of the advantaged, dominant culture, a person frequently has to sacrifice too much of a creative contribution. Our creative achievers will be those who accept only those parts of the dominant culture which are true and who hold onto their individuality and their minority or disadvantaged children. It will be they who possess the "different" element, the "divine discontent," and the clearness of vision to see that "the king wears no clothes." (p. 294)

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ASSESSING THE MULTICULTURAL CHILD

by

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The speech and language specialist sees the multicultural child first, in order to determine his/her language dominance, his/her language proficiency, and to determine whether s/he has a communication disorder or a problem communicating in the second language. Sometimes the multicultural child appears to be learning disabled when s/he is having difficulty expressing him/herself in the second language. An example of communication problem is when the child exhibits errors in vocabulary or syntax due to language interference from the first language.

Language dominance is usually assessed through the use of the Language Assessment Scales (LAS) or the Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM) scores. The specialist also takes into account the teacher's observations, the language of the home, and her/his own observations: the language spoken with the child's peers. The speech and language specialist then sets about assessing the child for language proficiency in the areas of receptive and expressive language. Instruments used for assessing language proficiency include:

Language Assessment Scales*
Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test
Language Home Survey
Primary Acquisition Language
Test of Auditory Comprehension of Language
Dos Amigos Verbal Language Scales
James Language Dominance
Bilingual Syntax Measure*
Del Rio Language Screening Test
Oral Language Proficiency Measure

*Indicates TEA-approved oral language proficiency tests.

If the child shows some indication of having language problems, the speech and language specialist does further in-depth testing.

Areas To Be Assessed

Receptive language – the areas of language which includes vocabulary, comprehension of language, and non-verbal reasoning skills.

Expressive language – the area of oral language skills which includes syntax (grammar), articulation (phonology) – the production of sounds, and auditory sequential memory – usally repetition of a sentence in proper sequence.

If the child is perhaps English dominant, then the in-depth testing is administered in English. If the child is Spanish dominant, then the testing is conducted in Spanish; however, some children do not have a clear dominant language. For example: A child scored about the same on the LAS both in English *and* in Spanish, but scored better in English in expressive language skills with better receptive language skills in Spanish. In a case such as this, the language assessment is given in both languages.

This causes problems in the assessment process. In the area of diagnostic services for the bilingual child:

1. There are not enough available tests to assess the bilingual or Spanish speaker.

2. Spanish tests that are available are sometimes Spanish translations of the English tests.

3. Very few of these test instruments are valid. Why?

The Spanish translations have no norms–only English norms are available. Translations are not valid because the item translated is at a different level than is the original English test item.

4. Some tests have been normed on different populations. For example, some test batteries are normed on populations of other Spanish speaking countries such as Venezuela, Spain, Puerto Rico, Cuba, etc.

The speech and language specialist, therefore, has to be very discriminating in the selection of tests and test batteries. For assessment purposes, it is important to determine the reason for testing the child. Is this child being tested to be placed in Bilingual Education? Is the child speech handicapped? Is the testing merely for screening purposes? Is it for diagnostic purposes? Will the test cover both written and spoken language? Will it cover verbal or non-verbal language? Is the test to be formal or informal? Will the testing be a language example? Is the test setting at school or in the home? Will the method be an elicited or a naturalistic approach?

As previously mentioned, there are few test instruments available in both English and Spanish. The following suggested guideline was presented by Judith Razarsky of the Corpus Christi Schools:

1. Is the test instrument being used a direct translation? Avoid this type of test since there are differences in the test items in English when translated into Spanish–such as structural, semantic, grammatical and phonetic differences.

Example: pencil sharpener – sharpens the pencil
sacque punto – to pull out / make a point (semantics)

Example: the right hand – Determiner / Adjective / Noun
la mano derecha – Determiner / Noun Adjective (grammatical)

Example: assist – to help
assistir – to attend (semantic)

2. Is the examiner fluent in both English and Spanish?

3. Are the vocabulary items appropriate for the Spanish speaking population being tested?

4. Does the test battery include a standardized instrument and a spontaneous speech sample?

As the numbers of tests for Spanish speakers are limited, so are the numbers of trained bilingual personnel. *The Communicator* (June, 1983), the newsletter of the Texas Speech and Hearing Association, states the number of personnel who provide services for the bilingual child, is limited:

(a) 57 out of 86 school districts (or 66%) had bilingual-speech pathologists.

(b) 19 school districts employ less than two bilingual speech-language pathologists (or 36% of those available); 11 school districts employ 3-5 bilingual speech-language

(b) 57 out of 86 school districts (or 66%) had bilingual-speech pathologists.

Assessment

Educational personnel who provide speech-language diagnostic services to bilingual children include bilingual speech pathologists in 33 districts (31%); all speech-language pathologists in 37 districts (34%); others (*i.e.* counselors, interpreters, psychological associates, bilingual teachers, reading teachers in 38 districts (35%).

What Is Needed

What is needed is an increase in educational personnel who can provide services for multicultural children whether for diagnostic or educational purposes. More trained personnel are needed who can discriminate the multicultural child with second langauge development problems from the multicultural child who has a communication or learning disorder. Tests for the Spanish speaker, valid standardization tests according to the Texas Hispanic population and normed by bilingual personnel are needed, desperately. Perhaps what is needed is the coming together of two teaching methods–Bilingual and Special Education–specialized teaching methods used to meet best the needs of the speech handicapped Limited English Proficient (LEP) student, both in the resource setting and the classroom setting.

TASK ANALYSIS IS PARTICULARLY CRITICAL

FOR

BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION PUPILS

by

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The title of my presentation forced me to analyze what major points should be presented and to determine how many there should be. The idea of isolated and expanded step-by-step task analyses procedures became lost in the face of the task of making effective use of the PL-91-142 legitimization of parents as participating members of the educational decision-making team.

I have decided to focus on one major point: the task of involving the parent of the bilingual special education child.

Drawing from my oldest early-Mexican-American experience, I can remember how people with limited mental prowess were treated. Everybody knew who they (the special education children) were but made no bones about it. The subject was handled quite matter-of-factly. "Some people are like that, period." Everyone was expected to "kinda look after these less fortunates" and that was that.

Interaction with them was almost impassionate. It was as though they were less than people; almost like pets. The "regular" people had only to provide shelter, personal protection, food, and clean (but simple) clothes for them.

In my California home town, there lived a family with a name descending from Spanish land-grant people. A son was born to them who had a speech and hearing handicap. Apparently, he was regarded as mentally retarded. Rather than put him in an institution which would have looked bad for the pride-filled family, the boy was placed in my aunt's house and in our home on an alternate schedule. Both homes were paid to take total care of him. And the children from both families all learned how to treat him. As I recall, he could dress himself, eat unassisted, and follow simple directions. He was instructed not to play with us. And even when we teased him, he main-

tained his composure. When we deviled him too much, he would let out an inhuman-like yell, such as Tarzan-of-the-Apes did. For this, he became known as "Tarzan" to everybody.

What stuck with me was the way people would look past him and never *at* him. They would utter messages and orders in his direction, but never *talk* to him. And if any of us kids tried to talk to him (something he really liked) we were quietly, but very firmly instructed not to. It was as though this semi-person was a personal burden to be born in *silent* suffering. In this case the parents suffered greatly because they had given up their son, and because they made monthly payments to have him kept; and we, for needing and receiving the money, suffered this (God directed) fact of life quietly and honorably—expecting nothing from the boy. Therein lay some key cultural treatments of retarded Mexican kids: Take care of them. Meet all their basic needs. *Expect nothing* except whatever self-care in toilet training, dressing, and eating they could do.

A later experience with a son of a Spanish-speaking family friend (who was first born to a forty-year-old woman) elicited the same behavior from everyone around, including me. We all *knew* how to act. This kid got the same "gray" treatment from *all* of us. He walked late, stuttered wildly, and had a wandering left eye. He went to "special" classes. And we *all* watched after him. He never learned to read. His talking improved dramatically at about age twenty. He got a job on the docks as a longshoreman. He did quite a bit for **HIMSELF – AFTER** he grew up! While he was a child, the parents and the school program were both quite ineffective.

Years later, as a new teacher, my principal, who

knew that I was bilingual, asked me to visit some Spanish-speaking parents to discuss a child being considered for Special Ed.

I'd almost forgotten that "gray" look, that attitude of resignation, that silent suffering countenance that came across the faces of people with an exceptional child. But when I met and talked with the parents, there it was! It was almost as though these parents had taken a class in how to behave when your special child is focused upon. Trying to involve these parents was like trying to get a cat to volunteer to take a bath! Not much progress. And I, as a new teacher, still saddled with the "proper" Mexican ethnic inculcation–found myself agreeing with their attitude of–"these things happen in life. . .and we just see it through."

I had to snap myself out of the old pattern. I feebly suggested that maybe more could be done for the child than we thought possible. I still had one foot in the early culture.

Mid-career I worked for the California State Department of Education. One of our big challenges was to check into the individual factors of children of Mexican ancestry who were over disproportionately over-represented in Special Education. Our investigation was part of a Title V ESEA federally funded Education Research Project. Three of us state consultants traveled throughout California armed with Spanish versions of both the WISC and the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Tests. Even though both of these translations were somewhat culturally biased (there was nothing else to use) the investigation revealed that:

1. Spanish speakers were tested in English even though their only language was Spanish.

2. Some had never been tested at all.

3. Some had never been to *any kind* of school anywhere!

(They were experientially retarded)

4. Some cranked out results of I.Q. ratings as high as 127, and that,

5. About the normal proportion of kids as from any group anywhere truly belonged in the special classes.

In discussions with the parents of the children tested, I found that they (the parents) split into two groups:

1. Those who were outraged that their perfectly normal (Spanish speaking) child had to be in a "special" class, and

2. Those who gave me the sideways "gray" look of resignation–those who knew that the child was special, but did nothing about it.

My last experience is with my wife. She had just finished a four-year term as principal of a Special Ed School. She has a degree in School Psychology, as well as in Administration. Her biggest problems occurred with parents of bilingual children. She could not get them to participate in Individual Education Programs. She could not even *get* to the subject of educational planning. If she got them to school, she couldn't make a dent in the *gray look*.

From "Tarzan" in 1930 to 91-142 in 1983. . .the gray look has survived! Even flourished! *That* is the *key* task in Bilingual Special Education. A skillfull, gentle, yet strong determined approach must be taken to break a deeply seated socio-cultural attitude. ***The Gray Look.*** It is not an easy task.

When the areas of important work to be done for Bilingual Special Education are laid out, they generally fall

in the order of my original framework for this presentation:

1. Unbiased assessment and testing
2. Appropriate curriculum which is also sensitive to Cultural and Linguistic factors, and
3. Parent involvement.

For Spanish-speaking Special Education preparations the sequence needs to be rearranged and re-focused. The *groundwork* for the whole Bilingual Special Education program must be educating the bilingual parent. Two or three times as much effort has to go into re-tooling the parent's long-standing automatic response to "special kids" In my humble, caring opinion, parent involvement is primary–No. 1! They have to be taught that these kids are very likely to live a long time–and that rather than just "taking care" of the child–that and active and challenging educational plan should be presented to them.

Dr. Victoria Bergin, from the Houston Independent School District, has prepared an excellent handbook entitled: *Special Education Needs in Bilingual Programs* (it is available through the:

National Clearing House for Bilingual Education
1300 Wilson Blvd., Suite B2-11
Rosslyn, Virginia 22209)

In 52 pages she has presented a gold mine for people in Bilingual Special Education. She presents an excellent historical review, gives some very useful ways to involve parents, talks about teacher training, and gives information about materials, and supplies references on people to read. In her power-packed book she points out–

> The special education teacher is trained to

> function within *that* specific area of expertise. The bilingual teacher is trained to operate within a classroom setting using two languages. The minority language, handicapped child falls somewhere in between. Somehow both of these teachers reflecting two disciplines, will have to find a meeting ground to address the needs of this child.

It has been my pleasure to be at this Special Ed Conference from the Bilingual side of the matter.

Conducive Learning for Language Minority Students

by

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Creating conducive learning environments for Language Minority students is a crucial area for teacher involvement. Realizing the complexity as well as the multifactored dimensions of this task, I would like to say that in this session I will be only scratching the surface of such an important issue.

I would like to begin by asking you to participate in the following exercise:

Pretend that you are all kindergarten teachers, and this is the first day of school. Here comes a five year old: Mary Smith. This will be her first experience with school. Please write her name on line 1. of your worksheets. *What do you want from her in school as her kindergarten teacher?*

Please (1) take a look at the goals that I have listed, and (2) list any others that you feel are important but are not listed. (3) Now prioritize them. What is the first most important, 2nd most important, and so on.

Now comes Jose Fernandez. He is also five years of age, and coming to school for the first time. Please (1) write his name on line 3. (2) add "to learn English" and any other goal that you might have. (3) Now prioritize again what is important for Jose when he first comes to school.

(Results on priority number 1 for Mary and Jose were counted. [see figure 1] Answers were selected by teachers were similar. It is important to note that an overwhelming majority indicated that for Jose, the priority listed as most important was *not* to learn English, but that there were other factors to consider. This does not mean that to learn English is not important; it means that it is only one factor among several others that are also very important.)

1. _____	2. _____
A. To FEEL comfortable in school.	A. To FEEL comfortable in school.
B. To learn school routine.	B. To learn school routine.
C. To have a positive self-concept.	C. To have a positive self-concept.
D. To have success in school.	D. To have success in school.
E.	E.
F.	F.
G.	G.

Figure 1

Conducive Learning and Reading

After clarifying our goal setting, it becomes most important to take a look at an academic area that seems to play a major role in conducive learning, and that is reading.

As we all know, reading is crucial to school success. I will attempt to deal with major issues in reading as they relate to a dual language, realizing again that I am just touching the tip of the iceberg.

Defining Reading

How would you define reading?

- Interaction with print
- Translation of letters into sounds of speech
- Getting information from print
- Comprehension of written language
- Communication of ideas, etc.

Obviously, reading has been perceived to mean several different things. Numerous models and definitions have been devised to explain this complex and multifaceted process. I would like to define reading as *a language-based process which uses written symbols as a means of communicating*. Consequently, reading is more than translating letters into sounds. It is a means of communication which involves whole language with affective as well as cognitive implications. This brings us to two very important concepts:

(1) Artificial Reading – when reading stops at word calling with *no meaning*.

(2) Real Reading -- when communication takes place through written language.

In trying to get meaning from witten language by using whole language, let's look at Figure 2 below.

Figure 2

Djoe Melare

Letale Djoe Melare rede uantede tu larne tu uride sêne-se ri uôse lêtale. Fainali, uéne ri uose sevane, ri uose oulde enafe tu goue tu secule.

Amangue de farcete uardesse dete ri larnede tu recognaise uose "PULL". Uane dei, ri noutecede dete uarde prêntede hône ei urede boxe êne da role-uei ove da secule. Dere uose ei chaini metale rendale stequingue aute ove da boxe. Bilingue ane oubidiente tchailde, Joe pulede, ete.

Ole tcheldrane rede âne ânesse-quedjulede faia drêle. Éte di ende ove da dei, Joe uente roume tu rese secande flore apartemente, uére ri lêvese uêde rêse fameli.[1]

After studying Figure 2 for a few moments, answer the following questions:

1. What language do you think it is?
2. What do you find that is common to what you know about written English?
3. What would you need to know to comprehend this written message?

How do your answers compare with these commonly given responses?

1. What language do you think it is?

- Do not know
- Spanish
- French
- Portuguese

2. What do you find that is common to what you know about English?

- Words
- Sentences
- Punctuation
- A title
- Capital and small letters

3. What would you need to know to comprehend this written message?

- the language knowledge
- graphophonics
- etc.

Now, I will give the English translation of the first paragraph of Figure 2 (see figure 3 below), and ask you to turn back and try reading the remainder of the story by using your whole language sense (English) because this is a story in English translated into Portuguese orthography.[2]

Figure 3

Joe Miller
Djoe Melare

Little Joe Miller really wanted to learn to read since
Letale Djoe Melare rede uantede tu larne tu uride sene-
he was little. Finally when he was seven, he was
se ri uose letale. Fainali, uene ri uose sevane, ri uose
old enough to go to school.
oulde enafe tu goue tu secule.

Transfer

Isn't it interesting that by using your existing knowledge of reading as a language-based process, which of course includes graphophonic, semantic and syntactic clues (see Appendix A for description), you were able to make sense out of a supposedly unknown written code.

Based on this simulation, would you agree that (a) you do not need to learn to read all over again, and (b) that you already have acquired many competencies that are a common feature of the reading process in various languages (particularly those that use the Roman alphabet). Consequently, it follows that literary skills are extended or transferred to a Second Language, *not* re-learned. Furthermore, wouldn't you feel insulted and consider it a waste of your precious time and effort if it were assumed that you needed to re-learn the following:

beginning and ending of words

the concept of letter/sound relationship
etc.

Of course you would! This is exactly the way many literate, linguistically diverse students view it when well intentioned teachers think that the best way to read English is to place them in a first grade phonics workbook originally developed for non-readers proceeding from page to page until the book is finished. This is not only time-consuming, but it is a needless task for those who have already mastered the reading process in the native language. What these students often require, particularly those with Special Needs, is to be helped in transferring their existing reading competencies to the Second Language (English). In many cases, this transfer needs to be guided, taking into account all the concepts already mastered. Background experienced needs to be used. Similarities and differences need to be pointed out and used as instructional tools where task difficulty is minimized by utilizing what the student knows or what s/he needs to learn.

Having been involved with bilingual students with special needs, many of whom have acquired the reading process through the Native Language and then transferred it to English, I have found this to be very conducive and effective way of dealing with reading in dual lanaguage context for students who have exhibited problems in learning.

As caring educators we need to look for pedagogically sound principles on which to promote effective and meaningful learning. This, of course, implies that we look at the child as a whole taking into account his/her prior experiences as a valuable building block to foster positive,

joyful learning, maximizing on strengths to help out weaknesses. No one can transfer unacquired skills. It has been my experience that in order for a successful transfer to take place in reading from Native Language (L_1) to English (L_2), the student needs:

(1) to have mastered L_1 written language as a means of communicating (Stage 2 & 3 of Reading, Chall, 1983). The amount of transfer from previous learning depends upon how well the initial task is learned (Mandler, 1962). Thus "thorough learning promotes efficient transfer" (Loree, 1970, p. 276).

(2) "good" oral language development in L_2 (English). The student should have a level of the Second Language development equivalent to English written material to be used, otherwise artificial reading is being promoted. (For stages in Second Language acquisition and analysis of reading materials, refer to the Cardona Scales in *The Reading Teacher*, November 1981).

Transfer is one of the most general phenomena of learning; thus, it might be helpful (a) to take a quick look at different kinds of transfer (see Figure 4, below), and (b) to realize that the important factor is that the Limited English Proficient child acquire the reading process, which, in my opinion, should be through the language that s/he knows best--thus avoiding serious retardation in the development of literacy skills (Downing, 1978).

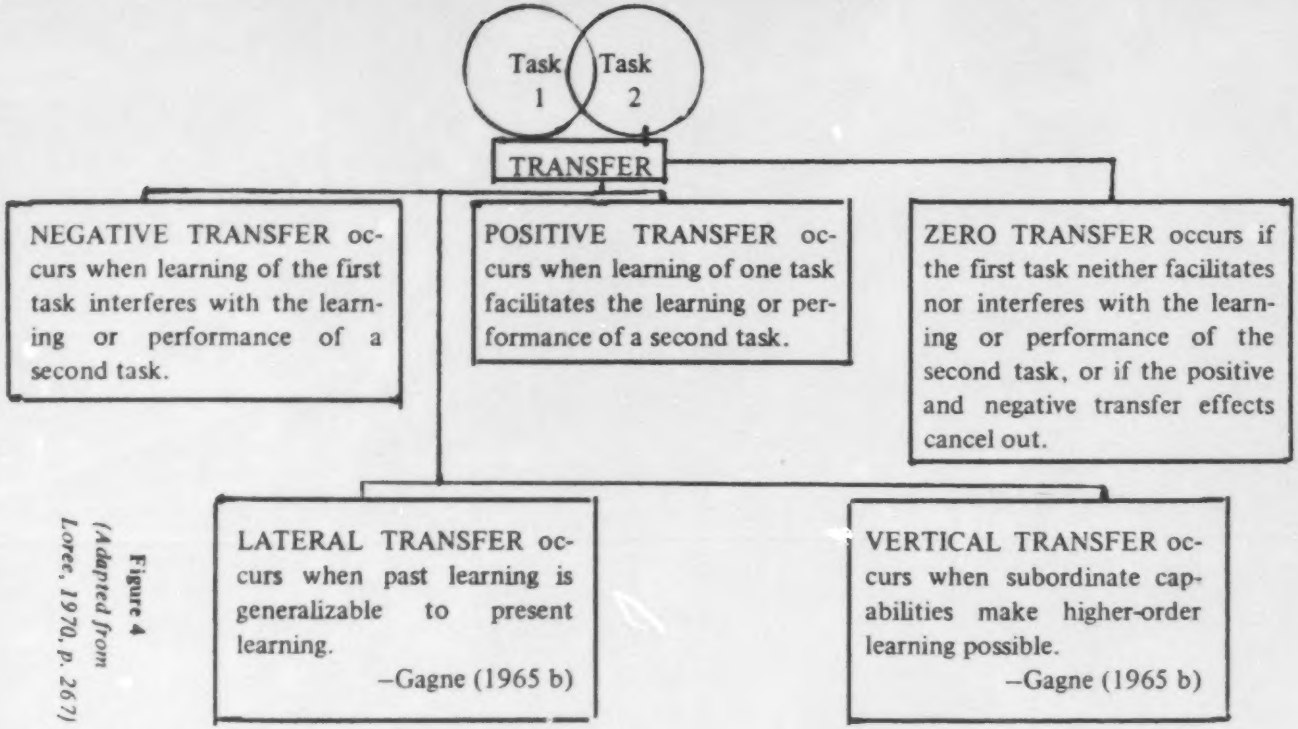

Task 1
Task 2
TRANSFER
NEGATIVE TRANSFER occurs when learning of the first task interferes with the learning or performance of a second task.
POSITIVE TRANSFER occurs when learning of one task facilitates the learning or performance of a second task.
ZERO TRANSFER occurs if the first task neither facilitates nor interferes with the learning or performance of the second task, or if the positive and negative transfer effects cancel out.
LATERAL TRANSFER occurs when past learning is generalizable to present learning.
–Gagne (1965 b)
VERTICAL TRANSFER occurs when subordinate capabilities make higher-order learning possible.
–Gagne (1965 b)

Figure 4
(Adapted from Loree, 1970, p. 267)

Dual Language Reading

In a dual language context there have been different approaches to the teaching of reading:

(1) L_2 only	–	Reading in the Second Language only
(2) L_1 to L_2	–	Reading acquisition in L_1 and transfer to L_2
(3) L_1 and L_2	–	Reading instruction carried out in both languages simultaneously.
(4) L_2 to L_1	–	Reading acquired through L_2 and transferred to L_1.

(For a review of the research done in this area, see Lombardo, 1980)

In attempting to select and provide the best program in the acquisition of the reading process for the Limited English Proficient student, pedagogical as well as sociological (SES, language context and status) variables need to be taken into consideration because the same program in different contexts results in different outcomes.

Cultural Differences Through Language

Experiences vary from culture to culture, bringing a new dimension to the meaning of words as well as to a

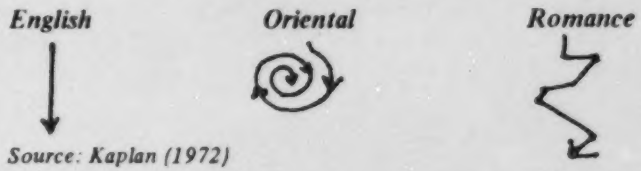
logical organization of these words and sentences into a written message. (See Figures 5 & 6)

Consequently, when dealing in a dual language context it becomes important to take a look at cultural differences through language which may have an impact on L_2 written language as a communication tool. Figure 5 presents a visual representation of the particular logic for writing for different languages, and Figure 6 illustrates cultural differences in words when Spanish and English are compared. These notions have important implications in reading and writing of English as a Second Language (especially for older students) so that cultural and/or linguistic influences are not initially taken for Special Education problems. Additionally, please refer to Appendix B.

Since reading acquisition and its uses as a means of communication are important educational issues for monolingual as well as bilingual students, it becomes most important to keep in mind current reading research for monolingual English reading success; this is necessary in order to determine its implications for a non-English speaking child with similar cognitive and affective needs who is faced with the task of learning the process of *communicating with written language*. The reading process should be meaningful and purposeful for any child. Rather than attending solely to the political implications of teaching a bilingual child to read only English, reading educators (bilingual and monolingual) must keep in mind what reading research has to offer in successful reading acquisition for *all* children, so that conducive learning is maximized.

Figure 5

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES THROUGH LANGUAGE



Source: Kaplan (1972)

Figure 6

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES THROUGH WORDS[3]
Spanish – English

1. Words similar in form and in meaning (hospital, hotel, taxi).

2. Words that are similar in form but represent meanings that are different (*assistir* in Spanish is similar in form to "assist" in English, but *assistir* means "attend" in English– "assisted a class", meaning to say "attended a class").

3. Words similar in meaning but different in form (direct translation: house/casa)

4. Strange meanings (the first floor in Spain is equivalent to the second floor in the United States.

5. Words that are different in their morphological construction (call on/to visit, call up/to telephone).

6. Words that have different connotations in the two languages (*Jesus* in Spanish – *Jesus* in English).

7. Words restricted to geographical areas (petrol/gasoline or gas).

APPENDICES

A

INFORMATION USED BY READER DURING THE READING PROCESS

I. *Graphophonic*
   A. Graphic (letters, spelling patterns)
   B. Phonological (sounds, pitch, stress)
   C. Phonic (relationships between graphic and phonological representations of the language)

II. *Syntactic*
   A. Sentence patterns (grammatical sequence; *e.g.* "the boy ball"
   B. Pattern markers
      1. Function words (*i.e.* the, was, not, etc.)
      2. Inflections (affixes which convey grammatical information; *e.g.* -ing, -ed, -s)
      3. Punctuation (system of marking and related intonation patterns)
   C. Transformational rules (not characteristic of graphic input itself, but supplied by the reader)

III. *Semantic*
   A. Experience (reader brings prior experience)
   B. Concepts (organization of meaning according to existing concepts)
   C. Vocabulary (ability to sort out experiences and concepts in relation to the context presented in reading)

Source: Goodman (1976), pp. 479-480

B

CONCEPTUALIZATION OF PROBLEM
–OR–
"That's Not How We Do It"

This exercise is designed to simulate the type of experience a child might have when taking a test that has questions that are highly culture specific. Things that are appropriate in one culture are not necessarily appropriate in another. A child who performs poorly on such test items may not recognize a viable alternative among the answers, or may respond according to his/her own standards. The test may a valid indicator of the acculturation of the child, but it should not be used as a measure of intelligence when the child is known to have a different cultural background.

This exercise can be generalized to any population that is different from the normative sample, *e.g.* rural, poor, inner city, gifted.

There are two parts to this exercise. The first test provides the participant with some practice on the task. Near the end of Test 1 the items begin to move away from purely factual information into the range of opinion. This will be discussed later.

The second part of the exercise is the simulation activity. The purpose of this activity is to create a situation where the test taker must respond from a different cultural perspective.

Answer the questions on Test 1 using ordinary conceptualization strategies.

On Test 2, the obvious answer is *not* what is being sought. Choices were selected from different cultural

perspectives. On Test 2, items 5-8 have more than one correct answer, depending on which cultural perspective you are using.

Please turn to Test 1 and answer the questions. Then go on to Test 2.

When you have completed Test 2, turn to the Discussion Guide and to the items from actual tests.

Test 1

Put a circle around the best answer.

1. How many days are there in a week?
   a. 5 c. 30
   b. 7 d. 365

2. Where does the sun rise?
   a. north c. east
   b. south d. west

3. What holiday is celebrated on 22nd February?
   a. Veteran's Day c. Lincoln's birthday
   b. Valentine's Day d. Washington's birthday

4. Where is Uruguay?
   a. Africa c. Asia
   b. South America d. Europe

5 How many inches in a meter?
   a. 36.50 c. 39.37
   b. 45.32 d. 100

6. What is the capital of New York?
   a. New York City c. Syracuse
   b. Buffalo d. Albany

7. Who discovered America?
   a. The Indians
   b. Columbus
   c. DeSoto
   d. The Pilgrims

8. Which does not belong?
   a. spring
   b. summer
   c. winter
   d. hunting

9. What don't you buy in a grocery store?
   a. sugar
   b. eggs
   c. shoes
   d. butter

10. How tall is the average American man?
   a. 5' 6"
   b. 5' 8"
   c. 5' 10"
   d. 6' 0"

Test 2

Put a circle around the item you select.

1. What comes first in an address?
   a. door number
   b. street
   c. town
   d. country

2. The sign of the zodiac changes
   a. about once a month
   b. once a year
   c. every other year
   d. about every two months

3. Which pair does not have a right and a left?
   a. shoes
   b. gloves
   c. socks
   d. mittens

4. What holiday is celebrated on December 31st?
   a. New Year's Eve
   b. New Year's Day
   c. 12th Night
   d. Christmas

5. A person in mourning generally wears
   a. black
   b. white
   c. dirty, ragged clothes
   d. a turban

6. You can identify a divorced woman because
   a. she wears no wedding band
   b. her nose is bitten off
   c. she has short hair
   d. she has a letter of divorce

7. Age is determined by
   a. the number of winters passed since a certain remarkable event
   b. the number of years in which a person has spent time, each new year beginning with New Year's Day
   c. the number of years and months passed since birth
   d. the number of years and months since conception

8. When people marry they
   a. exchange public vows
   b. take a trip
   c. drink 3 x 3 = 9 cups of wine
   d. share a piece of cake

9. When a young couple get married they are expected to live
   a. with the husband's family
   b. with the wife's family
   c. in their own apartment
   d. separately

10. Which does not belong?
   a. turtle
   b. bear
   c. wolf
   d. lion

Answers:

Test 1: 1b, 2c, 3d, 4b, 5c, 6d, 7b, 8d, 9c, 10c

Test 2

1d Sakai, p. 255.

2b Sakai, p. 103: the zodiac calendar has 12 signs, each of which is assigned to a year.

3a Sakai, p. 257: Geta (wooden shoes) are interchangeable but Tahi (socks) are not.

4b Sakai, p. 199: the Japanese follow the solar or Gregorian calendar on the whole, and are one day ahead of the West, with New Year coming on our December 31st.

5b Sakai, p. 255

or

Jones, p. 100: immediately after the decease of an Indian all the near relatives go into mourning by blackening their faces, and putting on the most ragged and filthy clothing they can find.

6d Sakai, p. 178: a letter of divorce is popularly known by the name of Mikudari-hon (lit. 3 lines and a half).

or

Jones, p. 80: when an Indian finds it necessary to divorce his wife, before the separation ensues, the husband bites off the wife's nose.

7b Sakai, p. 103: in Japan everybody gets older by one year on New Year's Day. One who is born on December 30th will be in his second year of life in the New Year.

or

7a Jones, p. 136: Indians reckon their ages by the number of winters they have passed since certain remarkable events happened.

8c Sakai, p. 176: at a wedding ceremony the bride and bridegroom exchange sake-cups 3 x 3 = 9 times

or

8b Jones, p. 79: the (courtship) is terminated by the young man's taking his chosen com-

panion on a wedding trip for several days.

9b Jones, p. 79: the wife's parents consider they have a claim on their (the young couple) industry and support until they have a family of their own to maintain.

10d Jones, p. 138: the Mohawk nation has three tribes: the Turtle, the Bear, and the Wolf.

Discussion Guide

Although Test 1 was primarily designed as a practice task, items 7-10 contain elements of opinion.

How could items 7 through 10 be considered culturally biased?

In light of today's supermarkets, which sell everything, many children would not be able to select the proper answer for item 9. Yet, these kinds of items continue to appear on tests of general information.

The questions on Test 2 were based on the traditional Japanese culture and the traditions of the Ojebway Indian in 1861.

1. How did you feel when taking Test 1? Test 2?
2. What problem solving strategies did you use in taking Test 2?
3. Did this experience heighten your awareness of how children with different cultural backgrounds may be confused by questions that are specific to American standards? How?
4. Did this experience make you more aware as a teacher/examiner of special problems some children may experience? In what way?

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CRITICAL ISSUES IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION FOR COUNSELORS AND TEACHERS

by

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National Needs

Recent studies of the nation's second largest language group indicated that there are more than 12 million Hispanic-Americans living on the mainland, of which 7 million (or 59% of the group) are Mexican-Americans (Oritz, 1982). These studies also indicate that about 80% of all Hispanic children live in homes where Spanish is the primary language (Oritz, 1982).

Within these groups, English is often spoken as a second language, if indeed it is spoken at all. Spanish-speaking children are often found to be up to six years behind their English-speaking counterparts with respect to basic cognitive skills (Martin, 1970).

Typically, at the outset of their formal education, the pupils find themselves in a strange, new environment where they are expected to perform with excellence in a language that not only is difficult to understand, but is also difficult to speak. This generalization is supported by the fact that enrollment rates are lower and drop-out rates higher among Hispanics than for the general population. It has been estimated, for example, that 66% of Mexican-American children who are enrolled drop out of school early (Ortiz, 1982).

The dismal plight of Hispanic children suggested by these statistics will likely become more sever due to the rapid increase of this population. Carlos Ovando emphasized this point in 1977 in the *Phi Delta Kappan* when he wrote that "Latinos" are the fastest growing minority group in the United States. He continued by stating that the median age of the group was estimated to be 20.9 as compared to a national average of 28.9. He also indicated that 13% of the group was under the age of five and that

approximately one out of 20 persons in the United States was Latino (Ovando, 1977).

Despite the rapid growth in the Hispanic-American population, there is a disproportionate growth in employment opportunities and job success. Brown, *et al.* (1977) indicated that one-fifth (20%) of all Hispanics had incomes that were below the poverty level, and that the unemployment rate for the following year was twice as high as that of caucasians.

Arciniega (1981) listed some current realities that are addressed specifically to Hispanic problems and issues:

1. There are sixteen million Hispanics in this country: Mexican-Americans make up seven percent of the population.

2. The majority of Mexican-Americans came to the United States after the 1920's.

3. Hispanic children are having a tremendous impact on the major school systems of this country.

4. In the face of such figures, school systems must respond to the educational needs of Hispanics.

5. Unfortunately, Hispanic children have not fared well in the nation's schools.

6. At the higher education levels, less than seven percent have completed college.

7. Two-thirds of all Hispanic children attend highly segregated schools: schools composed of predominately minority students....

8. Four-fifths of all Hispanics live in homes where Spanish is usually spoken.

9. Income figures for Hispanics continue to run significantly below the national average.

Cultural Concerns

The foregoing statistics suggest a need for a curriculum addressed to the special needs of the Spanish-speaking student. These needs cannot be fully addressed, however, until counselors and teachers have gained sufficient knowledge of the subculture to which these students belong. This knowledge includes the patterns and products of learned behavior. But more specifically, it refers to the patterned way of life of the group and includes such things as language, moral and religious beliefs, attitudes, systems of knowledge, values, and the technology of the group.

The so-called "American Society" has both an all-inclusive culture, a way of life shared by Americans, and a set of subcultures, ways of life that vary from subculture to subgroup. A knowledge of the ways of life of the group that differs from those of the majority, therefore, is a prerequisite to a successful counseling experience with Hispanic students.

While it would be impossible to cover completely all of the subcultural differences between the Anglo and the Hispanic subcultures in this paper, it is hoped that the following will enable the counselor to sharpen his or her skills with respect to this particular group.

The family unit is likely to be the single most important social identification factor for the Hispanic. It is for this reason that counselors should, in their strategies for developing rapport with Hispanic students, recognize that the client will likely put familial responsibilities first and other responsibilities last. Madsen (1973) concurred when he said, "He (the Latino) can increase community respect for his family or drag it into the mud by his behavior. To

bring shame on one's family is an unforgiveable sin. If the shame is great, the family may sever relations with the individual." He goes on to say that a Hispanic knows that he can depend on other members of the family for help when he is in need. This aid can come in the way of food, money, or an extra fist for a fight. This cohesive tie extends to grandparents, aunts and uncles and may include a certain community group or a gang affiliation.

It is also instructive to note that most Hispanic families are patriarchal and that discipline is rigid. While the father is the head of the house, the mother serves to "bridge the gap" between the children and the father. Her role is primarily that of homemaker while the father's role is that of decision making and providing for the needs of the family.

While the foregoing might describe the roles of most parents in the United States, there is a sharp demarcation in the ways children perceive their parents. In the Hispanic culture the father is expected to be wise in the ways of the world, but the mother is supposed to be naive in those things. Therefore, a teenager would seldom ask the mother about sexual matters. To do so would suggest that she had experience in such matters and was, perhaps, somewhat less than "pure." Respect for the mother is so strong that for a person to even imply that the mother of a Hispanic is less than pure is to risk violence.

Clearly, Hispanic children model their behavior from their parents. The oldest male is expected to assume certain responsibilities for the well-being of other members of the family. In the event that the father dies, or otherwise becomes incapacitated in some way, the oldest boy is expected to provide for the physical needs of the family. This responsibility may force him to drop out of school

and enter the job market. He is also looked to for advice and protection.

The oldest girl, on the other hand, is expected to help with the homemaking responsibilities of the mother. These responsibilities include helping the mother with cooking, house cleaning, and laundry. As a result, she may be absent from school on certain days of the week to help with these chores.

A counselor should have a positive attitude toward the Spanish-speaking student and his or her subcultural values and learning styles. It is for this reason that the notion should be rejected that bilingualism perpetuates cultural assimilation into American culture and society. Conversely, one might counter this notion with the idea that monolingualism perpetuates cultural unit and eliminates handicaps with respect to the assimilation of minorities into American culture and society. The notion also suggests that non-English-speaking minorities, even though they are U.S. citizens, are not members of the so-called American culture and society. Moreover, since a culture is comprised of many subcultures, the idea is untenable.

Since knowledge, perception, and behavior are strongly influenced by culture, members of different cultural groups can never live in exactly the same "real world," and as a result, basic concepts cannot be assumed to have exact correspondences across cultural boundaries. Moreover, since a language is the "codification of a culture," a knowledge of the language is essential if one expects to gain a thorough understanding of the culture. It is true, therefore, that as children learn their own native language, they are learning their culture. It is also true that as a second language is learned, a second culture is learned.

Language Development

Language is a binding, unifying force among Spanish-speaking as well as other non-English-speaking students. It reflects their value systems, learning styles, and modes of behavior. The following word variations and concepts are presented as examples of how values, learning styles, and modes of behavior are affected by language:

In Spanish there are two pronouns for "you"—whereas only one form is provided for in English. One is classified as formal and the other is classified as informal. Verbs can be conjugated as either formal or informal.

Spanish-speaking parents use the informal form when speaking to each other and to their children. Children, on the other hand, address their parents, teachers, strangers, and other adults with the formal form. This influences one to think in terms of superiority or inferiority and may contribute to positive or negative self-concepts.

Although standard Spanish is the objective of most teachers, acceptance of a student's nonstandard or dialect Spanish is important. To reject one's dialect is to reject one's parents, other family members, and perhaps even the entire community. Also, a knowledge of dialect words and phrases may eliminate some embarrasing situations as well as provide a means for establishing rapport with the client.

The concept of punctuality is intricately tied to language. To the Spanish-speaking person the clock walks, but to the English-speaking person it runs. This language difference might contribute to the differences between Latino and Anglo concepts of punctuality. Therefore, there is a tendency for the Spanish-speaker to believe that tardiness for an appointment, class, etc., is acceptable.

The typical Anglo, on the other hand, has a preoccupation with punctuality and views tardiness as a mark of irresponsibility.

Responsibility for one's actions is also related to language. In Spanish there is a verb structure known as the "exculpatory reflexive." This structure denies personal fault. For example, in English one would say, "I am late." But the Spanish-speaking person would say, "It made me late." He would also say, "The book forgot itself to me," or "The book dropped itself from me."

Gestures are important components of the Spanish language and include, among other things, expressions of love, hate, and respect. Friends, regardless of sex, frequently greet each other with an embrace, a custom frequently misunderstood by Anglos.

A show of respect by Hispanic children is frequently interpreted by Anglos as a sure sign of guilt. For example, among Anglos a person with nothing to hide is expected to be able to look an authority figure in the eye. The Hispanic child, however, has been taught to look at the floor as a sign of respect for adults, or for authority figures.

Since specific counseling techniques are already a significant part of the counselor's academic preparation, only areas of a general nature are dealt with in this paper. It is believed, however, that an improved knowledge of subcultural differences among students will enable counselors to sharpen their skills and to develop greater satisfaction in their work. Too, it is believed that certain elements of bilingual and multicultural education should be a part of the professional counselor's academic preparation and that special programs should be developed at the college and university level to meet this important need.

BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS OF NON-HANDICAPPED AND MILDLY HANDICAPPED HISPANIC STUDENTS

by

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Although much has been written concerning the social problems of Hispanics, there are only a few studies of the behavior problems of Hispanic children (Padilla, Ruiz, & Alvarez, 1975; Touliatos & Lindholm, 1976). The investigations of behavior problems of Hispanic students have generally compared the students with their Anglo counterparts on various dimensions.

Stoker and Meadow (1974) matched 152 Hispanic and 152 Anglo children (76 boys, 76 girls in each group) for age and socioeconomic status. The children had received services from three child guidance clinics in Southwestern cities. Their case records were reviewed by the researchers who completed a checklist of 74 symptomatic behaviors. Figure 1 shows a rank ordering of the high frequency symptoms for each group of children.

Figure 1

A Rank Order of High Frequency Symptoms Among Hispanic and Anglo Boys and Girls (Stoker and Meadow, 1974)

Hispanic		*Anglo*	
Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Hostility	Depression	Anxiety	Anxiety
Stealing	Somatic complaints	Enuresis	No or few friends
Fighting	Hostility	No or few friends	Enuresis
Aggressive behavior	Crying spells	Poor social relationships	Bites nails
Hyperactivity	Running away from home	Nervousness	Nervousness
Negativism			
Obstinancy & defiance			

The Stoker and Meadow data suggest that a child guidance sample of Anglo boys and girls are very similar when their most frequent symptons are compared. There are some similarities between the Hispanic boys and girls in symptomatology (*i.e.* hostility), but they are mostly different, both in comparison to each other and to the Anglo boys and girls. Stoker and Meadow note further that the symptoms of the Hispanic girls are similar to the behavior problems expressed by young Hispanic women. In an earlier study, Meadow and Stoker (1965) reported that the typical patients in a Model Cities Project mental health center were young adult Hispanic women with the following symptoms: crying spells, irritability, depression, and temper tantrums. These patients expressed more concern about their spouses while non-Hispanic patients were more concerned about problems with their children. The findings are similar to those reported by Heiman and Kahn (1973) who analyzed characteristics of patients from a barrio neighborhood mental health service. Heiman and Kahn noted that the typical patients were young adult Hispanic women with marital problems, somatic complaints, and symptoms of depression.

A study by Touliatos and Lindholm (1976) exemplifies a different approach to investigating the behavior problems of Hispanic children. The researchers compared 1,999 Anglo and 192 Hispanic children on the four factors of the Behavior Problem Checklist (Quay & Peterson, 1975). The children were enrolled in kindergarten through fifth grade. The Anglo students, as rated by their teachers, evidenced more problems on three of the factors (Conduct Disorder, Inadequacy-Immaturity, and Socialized Delinquency) but were similar to the Hispanic students on the Personality Disorder dimension.

The above findings are interesting in view of the representation of Hispanic students in special education classes (Carter & Segura, 1979). While it is well known that Hispanic students are overrepresented in classes for the educable mentally retarded in the 1960's, more recent data are limited regarding the representation of Hispanics in other categories as defined by special education officials. Data from Texas were reviewed by Carter and Segrua (1979), and it was noted that Hispanic students were "grossly under-represented" in the categories labeled emotionally disturbed and minimally brain injured. Further, Meadow and Stoker (1965) reported that 82% of the patients seen in the Model Cities Project mental health center were between the ages of 15 and 44 years, while only 7% were between five and fourteen years and none were younger than 5 years. Thus, school age children were "under-represented" in the mental health center.

If Hispanic youngsters are indeed "under-represented" in classes for the emotionally disturbed and if Hispanics under-utilize mental health services, the question regarding possible explanations should be asked. Keefe (1979) summarized possible reasons for the under-utilization of mental health clinics and concluded that the ethnic perceptions of emotional problems are the most important factor. Other plausible explanations include language barriers and culture-bound value differences (Stoker and Meadow, 1974) as well as rater bias (Stevens, 1980).

Studies have rarely been focused on determining the differences, if any, between Hispanic students who are mildly handicapped and thos who are not identified as handicapped. The present study compares these two groups on a checklist designed to describe behavior problems in children and youth.

Method

The subjects were 110 students (56 non-handicapped, 54 mildly handicapped) who were included in the original sample of the factor study of the Teacher Checklist of School Behavior (Hutton & Roberts, 1983). All 110 of the subjects were identified as Hispanic by surname (50 girls, 60 boys). The mildly handicapped students were identified as either mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, or learning disabled, in accordance with guidelines established by the Texas Education Agency. The mildly handicapped were enrolled in a special education resource classroom for a part of their educational program and were "mainstreamed" for at least one-half of the school day. The subjects in the non-handicapped group were younger (M = 8 years, 3 months) than the midly handicapped (M = 13 years, 10 months).

The Teacher Checklist of School Behavior (TCSB) was completed by either the regular or special education teacher. The TCSB was developed with items corresponding to the characteristics of emotional disturbance described by Bower (1969). The teachers were asked to rate their students on each of the 32 items by marking whether the behavior had been observed never or rarely, occasionally, or frequently. Point values of one, two, or three were given to each item according to the perceived frequency of occurence, and the total score on the checklist increased as the perceived frequency of problem behaviors increased. The minimum score was 32; maximum, 96.

Results

The non-handicapped and midly handicapped Hispan-

Table 1

A Comparison of Non-handicapped and Midly Handicapped Hispanic Students on the Teacher Checklist of School Behavior

Factors	*Non-handicapped*		*Midly handicapped*		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*
Peer Avoidance					
Total	6.625	2.24	7.018	2.85	0.802
Girls	6.67	2.33	7.038	2.62	0.529
Boys	6.594	2.21	7.000	3.10	0.589
Aggressive Interaction					
Total	8.143	2.98	9.204	3.13	1.821
Girls	7.333	2.33	8.962	3.53	1.908
Boys	8.750	3.28	9.393	2.79	1.022
Teacher Avoidance					
Total	7.607	3.8	7.980	2.72	0.588
Girls	7.125	2.22	7.500	2.39	0.575
Boys	7.312	2.69	8.286	3.08	1.306
Inappropriate Behavior					
Total	4.911	1.61	6.352	3.77	2.515**
Girls	4.917	1.93	5.885	2.40	1.560
Boys	4.906	1.35	6.071	2.24	2.474**
Depressive Reaction					
Total	4.589	1.19	5.389	1.16	2.976*
Girls	4.375	0.77	5.615	1.88	3.009*
Boys	4.750	1.41	5.179	1.31	1.213
Physcial Reaction					
Total	3.696	1.04	4.148	1.39	1.930
Girls	3.500	0.88	4.038	1.46	1.564
Boys	3.844	1.14	4.036	1.20	0.206
Anxiety Reaction					
Total	5.375	0.65	6.037	1.78	2.609*
Girls	5.292	0.55	6.423	2.21	2.435*
Boys	5.438	0.72	5.679	1.19	0.966
Total Score					
Total	40.625	7.97	45.759	9.94	2.994*
Girls	39.292	6.41	45.885	10.32	2.687*
Boys	41.625	8.93	45.643	9.76	1.664

*$p < .01$
**$p < .02$

ic students' scores on the TCSB were compared by applying the *t*-test for two independent means. The mildly handicapped students were rated as having more frequent behavior problems on the total score and on three of the behavioral dimensions: Inappropriate Behavior, Depressive Reaction, and Anxiety Reaction (refer to Table 1). The boys and girls were analyzed separately and as indicated in Table 1, the mildly handicapped Hispanic boys were rated more negatively on the Inappropriate Behavior dimension while the mildly handicapped girls were rated more negatively than the non-handicapped girls on the dimensions labeled Depressive Reaction and Anxiety Reaction.

Discussion

The current results suggest that teachers rate Hispanic mildly-handicapped students as having more frequent behavior problems than non-handicapped youngsters. Unfortunately, age is confounded with type of student in the present study and therefore it is not possible to conclude that age is not a factor. Older students may be rated differently by their teachers than younger students. However, the differences are interesting in view of the literature. Although Stoker and Meadow (1974) noted that a frequent symptom of Hispanic boys and girls in child guidance clinics was hostility, the girls exhibited a symptom pattern dissimilar to the boys. The girls' frequent symptoms were depression, somatic complaints, crying spells, and running away from home. Further, the women in the Meadow and Stoker study (1965) were noted to display a high frequency of symptoms involving crying spells, irritability, depression, and temper tantrums. The mildly handicapped girls in the present study were rated as having more frequent

problems in the area of Depressive Reaction (*i.e.*, writes, talks, or draws about "scary" subjects; easily frightened; cries over minor annoyances; etc.). Perhaps the mildly handicapped Hispanic girl is likely to become a patient in a mental health center, with the symptoms in school, and later as an adult, expressed as depression.

Anglo students are likely to be referred to special education when they are rated by teachers as more aggressive (peer conflict, argumentative, frequent fighting, etc.) than their peers. It is interesting to note that the Hispanic mildly handicapped students were not rated as more aggressive than the non-handicapped students. Hutton and Roberts (1983) reported that the original sample (from which the Hispanic students were drawn), when divided into mildly handicapped and non-handicapped groups, yielded data indicating that the mildly handicapped were significantly different from the non-handicapped on the Aggressive Interaction dimension.

If teachers are more likely to refer students who create uncomfortable feelings in the teachers, and if teachers are prone to having uncomfortable feelings when confronted with aggressive students who create a "teacher owned problem" (Brophy & Rohrkemper, 1981), and if Hispanic students are less likely than others to exhibit aggressive behaviors in school, then Hispanics may be less likely to appear in mental health clinics (Heiman & Kahn, 1973; Meadow and Stoker, 1965) and in public school classes for the emotionally disturbed (Carter & Segrua, 1979). Clearly, much more research is needed to better describe and understand the factors involved in referring Hispanic students who have behavior problems, and to plan ways to assist in school and community adjustment.

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ISSUES IN BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION: TEACHER PREPARATION

by

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Introduction

Such legislative and court action as the Civil Rights Act, 1964; the Bilingual Education Act, 1968; *Lau vs. Nichols*, 1974; and, the Special Education Act, 1975: P.L. 94-142, have been primarily determinants for ensuring equal educational opportunity for Hispanic exceptional children. State and Federal guidelines were developed to facilitate local school districts in complying with public laws and court decisions requiring student assessment, instruction, and curricula development commensurate with student language and academic needs.

Given the preliminary nature of research in the area of bilingual special education, this article will focus on priority issues affecting the preparation of teachers for language minority exceptional children. Since it is not possible to present a comprehensive treatment of all language minority exceptional populations, only Hispanics will be considered. It is hoped, however, that the information and analysis presented is generalizable for other language minority exceptional children.

Who are the Hispanics and what are salient issues in preparing special education teachers to translate legislative mandates into reality for Hispanic exceptional students? The primary purpose of this presentation is to attempt to answer these questions and to present a number of recommendations for teacher educators.

Historical Perspective

It is a misnomer to categorize all Spanish-speaking Hispanics into one single group. Currently court actions prohibit current breakdown by Hispanic subgroups for the

1980 census. The total for 1980 is 14,605,883. (The Census Bureau classifies Hispanics as Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, Central and South Americans, and other Hispanics. For a detailed discussion of difficulties in classifying the Hispanic population, see Hernandez, Estrada, and Alvires, 1973.) This total does not account for undocumented Hispanic aliens, or the recent influx of Cubans to Florida. Other significant variables such as Hispanic mobility, limited English or non-English proficiency, and poor census techniques would increase the 14½ million total, perhaps, to the 20 million projected by Hispanic leaders. To complete a demographic description of Hispanics a variety of factors such as home language, country of origin, time and location in the United States, socioeconomic status, education level of parents must be considered for the extremely heterogenous minority group. Hispanics, however, usually share a common language: Spanish.

How have Hispanics fared in the educational system? In *Education of the Spanish-Speaking Urban Child*, Ogletree and Garcia point out in their introduction that

> the basic problems common to the many black and Spanish-speaking groups are poor housing, poor jobs, poor food, poor education, poor governmental representation, defacto segregation. The Spanish-speaking have the additional problems of English language deficiencies and cultural differences (1975, p. x).

Researchers and educators have documented Mexican Americans as the most undereducated of American students (Carter, 1970; Moore, 1972; Steinberg, 1974).

Concommitantly, language and culture, family income levels, parental attitudes and aspirations for student educational attainment, inadequate testing, and negative school experiences have been most frequently cited as the reasons for low achievement levels of Hispanics (Andersson and Boyer, 1970; Montenegro, 1972). According to Bratt-Paulston,

> The hereditary inferiority theory helped influence the formulations of the 'cultural deprivation' theory, which attempted to explain away any hereditary inferiority by positing instead a weakness in upbringing and socialization of the children, the nature vs. nurture arguments. The genetic and environmental theories differ in what they see as the causal variable, but they are alike in both squarely putting the blame for failure on the minority group and the deficiency of its members. Whether genetically or culturally, they have not evolved right–and right is of course defined in terms of the values of the dominant group (1980, p. 7).

The legacy of the "melting pot" theory, until the last two decades, effectuated in dismal educational statistics for all Hispanic children, such as nationwide scaling attrition rates, and disproportionate representation in special education classrooms (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1974). It becomes self evident that neither general education teachers, special education teachers, nor the institutions of higher education preparing these teachers were equipped to actively respond to the instructional needs of the Hispanic student and Hispanic exceptional student in the early sixties.

Fishman (1973) reports that blacks, Hispanics, and other minority groups began to demand change vis-a-vis the American education system in the late 1960's. In 1968 Congress enacted the Bilingual Education Act. Title VII (ESEA) Bilingual Education Act in 1972 addressed the needs of the linguistically different child for the first time. Consequently, language assessment issues for language minorities came of age. The Bilingual Education Act, amended in 1974, mandated a curriculum in the child's home language. Court decisions such as *Diana vs. State Board of Education* (1970), and *Larry P. vs. Riles* (1972) called attention to the use of individual intelligence tests in English with minority children. (For a detailed discussion on non-biased assessment of Hispanic children, see *Conference Proceedings Document: Invitational Conference on Non-Biased Assessment*, 1981.) Public Law 94-142 (1975) mandated that the assessment, the individual educational programs, and curricula be developed to serve *every* exceptional child, linguistically different children inclusive. This increase in programs has created an increased need for teacher preparation in bilingual education. Correspondingly, there is an overwhelming need for the preparation of special education personnel to work in bilingual, multicultural settings. (The entire Summer, 1979, issue of *Teacher Education and Special Education* focuses on multicultural education.)

What is Bilingual Special Education?

Bilingual education is by definition a controversial phenomenon in this country. The National Institute of Education report states that the Bilingual Education Act of 1968 is actually a misnomer, "since the long range goal

is not bilingualism but proficiency in English" (1975, p. 6). Since bilingual education was established in this country to provide educational equity for language minorities and to rectify past ills which stemmed partly from inadequate teacher preparation, these areas merit close attention. There is a growing body of empirical data on the culturally and linguistically different child. However, much of the research has been carried out with non-exceptional populations.

The "state of the art" of teaching the culturally and liguistically different Hispanic exceptional child is at a low ebb. There is a dearth of research on the Hispanic handicapped student. Perhaps, we are endeavoring to solve a problem which has never been defined. According to Baca, "In the ideal sense, bilingual special education may be defined as the use of the home language and the home culture along with English in the individually designed program of special instruction for the student" (1980, p. 3).

Recommendations

The teacher competencies and skills to effectively teach the Hispanic exceptional learner must be identified and validated. At the national level, competency lists have been generated by "experts" in the field of bilingual education (Office of Bilingual Education, 1978, U.S. Office of Education) and in the field of special education (Access, Inc., 1981). However, "until competencies are empirically defined, educators will continue to rely on the existing array of questionable measures based on narrow congitive processes, superficial behavioral observations and *a priori* value-laden judgements" (Rodriguez, 1980, p. 373).

Although there are universities federally funded, such as The University of Texas at Austin which has been funded for the first time (1981-1982) to implement graduate bilingual special education programs, the numbers are small in comparison to the language minority populations to be served. Many certified special education teachers who will teach in urban centers with high concentrations of Spanish-speaking children will have little or no training to prepare them for these target groups. With current trends focusing on teacher accountability and competency-based teacher education the following recommendations are made for meeting the responsibility of instructing the Hispanic exceptional student:

1. Universities must identify empirically defined competencies so that the teacher training curricula can be designed to develop these competencies. The answer is not simply a marriage between bilingual and special education.

2. There is a need for multidisciplinary approaches in teacher training at the undergraduate and graduate level, in general education, bilingual education, and special education. Anyone working with children should know about language and culture and the integral role they play in child development.

3. Teacher trainers must be cognizant of labels and accompanying negative stereotypes of Hispanic exceptional children such as "culturally deprived," or "disadvantaged," and actively work toward improving the image of the minority handicapped child.

4. There is a need for research with Hispanic exceptional populations and cross-cultural studies. Instructional methodology is unclear in working with this target population.

5. Assessment instruments and procedures must become "appropriate" for Spanish-speaking handicapped students.

Theory and practice must converge in the classroom for the Hispanic exceptional student during the '80's.

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BILINGUAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR MILDLY HANDICAPPED HISPANIC ADOLESCENTS

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Abstract

Due to the "double-edged" problems faced by limited English speaking Hispanic mildly handicapped adolescents, there is a need to develop bilingual vocational education programs. Effective implementation of such programs will involve cooperative efforts from teachers in special education, bilingual education, and vocational education. The roles of each of these teachers in the program are discussed below.

Thesis

Handicapped adolescents are generally plagued with sociopersonal, psychoeducational and vocational inadequacies which have a tremendous influence on the way they view themselves (Linkowski and Dunn, 1974). These inadequacies, in turn, influence the students' aspirations and expectations (Davis and Whyte, 1970). In addition, these social, academic, and vocational inadequacies in students seem to initiate self-fulfilling prophecies in their teachers (Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968), especially if these prophecies include "attitudes and expectations that involve such variables as sex, social class, race and ethnic group" (Telford and Sawrey, 1977, p. 45). It is expected that the ineptness of handicapped adolescents in relationship with the apparent negative attitude of classroom teachers may result in the perpetuation of a defeat cycle (Gardner, 1977, pp. 442-447).

Handicapped adolescents are a challenge to the public education system. These atypical students have been misunderstood to the degree that they have received inappropriately designed instruction, have been disciplined harsh-

ly and have been advised into special or non-academic programs. It is anticipated that an even greater challenge would be the Hispanic adolescent with accompanying handicapping conditions. Chinn (1978) believes that these students will encounter "double-edged" problems: those which result from the handicapping condition as well as problems stemming from their sociocultural background (Plata and Santos, 1981).

Among the diversity of problems for all Hispanic adolescents (including those with handicapping conditions) are underachievement (NCEP, 1982); high drop-out rates (Santiago and Feinberg, 1981; NCEP, 1982); discriminatory assessment (Alley and Foster, 1978; Bernal, 1979; Oakland, 1980); inadequate instructional strategies (Sierra, 1972, Gonzales, 1979); lack of teaching materials (Bland, Sabatino, Sedlak, and Sternberg, 1979); inadequately financed educational programs (Cardenas and Cortez, 1983); inadequately trained teachers (Plata, 1979); insensitive school personnel (Manuel, 1965); employment discrimination (NCEP, 1982); etc. Most critical among these problems is the lack of proficiency in English. Hispanic Americans' problems with the English language reduce their prospect for good-paying jobs, is used as a vehicle for discrimination and impede their educational attainment (NCEP, 1982).

One of the primary educational objectives for Hispanic adolescents with mild handicapping conditions (*i.e.*, educable mentally retarded, learning disabled and behavioral disordered) who have acute problems in understanding and/or communicating in English should be to learn the technical language and academic skills related to occupations in which they are to receive training. In addition, these adolescents need to learn socially acceptable

behaviors essential to being accepted by friends, teachers, employers and which are in accord with the major society. In sum, the Hispanic student must develop social competence, academic adequacy and occupational competence (Kirk, 1972).

A Proposed Bilingual Vocational Education Program

There is a need for training programs that maintain handicapped pupils in the least restrictive environment; remedial in nature; highly organized and individualized; and is comprehensive and functional. The proposed bilingual vocational program for handicapped adolescents is an approach that meets these standards and "goes beyond 'band-aid' strategies traditionally used to offset the dilemma of low achievement and high unemployment of black, Latinos, and other ethnic minorities (Kingsley, 1978). In the bilingual vocational program for Hispanic handicapped adolescents three educational disciplines plan and coordinate the effort. Classroom teachers from special education, bilingual education, and vocational education work together to implement the bilingual vocational program. These teachers, by necessity, communicate with one another, share information about their respective discipline, and create coordinated curriculum (Phelps and Lutz, 1979) with a common aim of providing an appropriate education for adolescents who are facing dual disadvantages. The ultimate goal of the bilingual vocational program's coordinated curriculum activities is to enhance the student's chances in obtaining essential entry level skills. It is anticipated that the coordinated efforts of special education, bilingual education, and vocational education may be the connecting link in the chain of

events that allow Hispanic pupils to succeed socially, academically and vocationally. In short, these students would gain social competence, academic adequacy, and occupational competence (Kirk, 1972).

To increase the effectiveness and relevancy of the bilingual vocational program for handicapped adolescents, a vocational objective hierarchy similar to that outlined by Brolin and Kokaska (1979, p. 108) should be developed. In addition, the development of materials and management strategies for the program should be based on basic learning principles outlined by Kirk and Gallagher (1983, pp. 155-158) and behavioral management strategies described by Michael (1969a, 1969b).

For the Hispanic handicapped adolescent, it is essential that instruction follow the four basic requirements stipulated by Galvan (1979): (1) instruction should, if possible, be given in two languages, (2) instructional materials must be provided in two languages, (3) instruction should be based on two cultures, and (4) the student must have the opportunity to learn in two languages. In addition, English as a second language techniques must be employed. Finally, the bilingual vocational program and its policies and procedures, must conform to rules, regulations, and policies pertinent to educating the handicapped. Special consideration must be givn to issues in nondiscriminatory assessment, placement in the least restrictive environment, parental involvement, individualized educational programming and procedural safeguards.

In this training program model, vocational and academic training is integrated, sequenced, organized, and individualized. English as a second language (ESL) should be used to teach Hispanic handicapped adolescents the vernacular most frequently needed to successfully function

in the vocational training program; to reinforce their vocational language (in English) through its use in the vocational training environment, to understand the career-oriented curriculum in the special education classroom; and to provide language skills used by these pupils to interact socially with their English-speaking peers and authority figures.

In the development and implementation of the bilingual vocational program, the needs of the Hispanic handicapped adolescent must be kept in clear focus. Planning, negotiating, implementing, and evaluating activities in which vocational, bilingual and special education teachers are involved should be guided by professional integrity and objectivity. To enhance the probability of success in these program activities, it may be necessary to understand the roles of the personnel involved. Knowing the roles of one's work may prevent antagonistic feelings of teachers towards one another due to misinterpretations and misguided efforts. (Those teachers involved in bilingual vocational education programs, through mutual consent, may choose not to establish such guidelines or to eliminate such guidelines at their discretion.)

Teachers' Roles In The Bilingual Vocational Education Program

Certain roles can best be performed by teachers appropriately trained in a specific discipline. In the bilingual vocational education program for Hispanic handicapped adolescents, three instructors have distinct roles to perform. These roles should be guided by basic curriculum standards and provisions established by public laws addressing the basic rights of handicapped individuals.

Roles for the vocational, bilingual and special education instructors are described below. No attempts have been made to develop an exhaustive list of duties for each of the instructional roles; amendments may be made as necessary.

Role of the vocational instructor. The vocational instructor will have the pivotal role in the proposed bilingual vocational training program. The vocational instructor should provide systematic, structured vocational training as outlined in the IEP and commensurated with the students' capabilities. The vocational teacher must work as a team member with the special education and bilingual education teacher in establishing appropriate objectives, developing instructional activities, and applying management techniques for carrying out the vocational training program. In this context, vocational teachers may be asked to (1) develop and implement non-discriminatory assessment in ascertaining entry and exit vocational performance of Hispanic handicapped students; (2) develop individual education programs (IEP's) with members of the IEP team; (3) develop and implement instructional strategies sensitive to the learning style and performance level of Hispanic handicapped students; and (4) work with employers in the community to enhance the student's transition from school to work.

As a team member, the vocational education teacher should expect and accept assistance from bilingual and special education teachers. From the bilingual education teacher, the vocational instructor learns strategies to teach vocational concepts to students who lack command of the English language. From the special education teacher, the vocational instructor learns behavioral and

instructional management strategis for teaching handicapped students. Ultimately, the vocational instructor should integrate bilingual and special education methodology in teaching Hispanic handicapped pupils in the vocational setting.

To facilitate their roles the vocational teacher should provide the bilingual education and special education teachers essential vocational instructional materials used to teach vocational skills (Galvan, 1979). These materials form the basis for the special education curriculum as well as ESL lesson for the bilingual teacher. Instructional materials provided by the vocational instructor should include glossary of terms, safety rules, tool lists, lesson plans, course objective, course outlines, texts, handouts, and written procedures used in accomplishing vocational tasks. In addition, the bilingual education teacher should be allowed to evaluate supplementary material used in the vocational training program, including laboratory manuals, forms, order blanks, and time sheets.

Rol of the special education teacher. The speci l education teacher plays a supportive role in the bilingual vocational education program. The special education teacher should assist vocational and bilingual instructors to understand behavioral and learning characteristics of handicapped pupils, individualized educational programs, procedural safeguards, nondiscriminatory assessment, and individualized instruction strategies. In short, the special education teacher should maintain an advocacy role: explaining, describing and defending practices that benefit Hispanic handicapped adolescents.

Imparting information to members of the team is crucial, but an equally important function of the special

education teacher is to create a vocationally-oriented academic program for handicapped adolescents. With the help of the vocational instructor, the special education teacher should analyze the vocational education curriculum to ascertain academic skills essential to success in vocational training. Once identified, it is imperative that these academic skills be transmitted to handicapped students enrolled in special education classes. In the case of Hispanic handicapped students, it is necessary for the special education teacher to use English as a second language techniques. As a consequence, it is imperative that special education and bilingual education teachers establish close working relationships, especially if the special education teacher is not bilingual or is unskilled in using bilingual education methodology in the instructional process.

While special education teachers assist vocational and bilingual education instructors to understand handicapped students, they must also be willing to understand their colleague's viewpoints. Special education teachers need to be tolerant of the bilingual and vocational teachers' lack of understanding of handicapped students and apparent reluctance to adapt curriculum or instructional methodology. To offset these problems, the special education teacher must indicate a willingness to learn about the bilingual and vocational disciplines.

Role of the bilingual education teacher. It has been established that the vocational teacher has the pivotal role in the bilingual vocational education program. The role of the bilingual educator, while supportive in nature, is no less important. Without the assistance of the bilingual teacher, the vocational and special education components in the training program will be ineffective. It is important,

therefore, that the bilingual teacher be viewed as a full partner in the bilingual vocational program.

While the role of the bilingual education teacher may vary according to locale, the major aim of the bilingual teacher should be to teach Hispanic handicapped pupils survival language skills. Spanish speaking pupils need to understand the language of instruction, including routine classroom commands ("get me the . . ." "sit down," etc.) as well the language used in the teaching process ("circle all the . . . ", "draw a two-inch line", "turn the cylinder to the left", etc.) (Galvan, 1977). In addition, the bilingual education teacher should be responsible for imparting information about the impact of Hispanic culture, beliefs, attitudes, and values on the pupils' learning patterns and learning styles to all school personnel, especially to the special education and vocational teachers.

If the bilingual education teachers are to make a significant contribution in the bilingual vocational education program, they must be allowed to employ bilingual education methodology in their instruction. It is anticipated that the degree to which Hispanic handicapped adolescents learn to survive and achieve in the English-speaking school environment may depend on the teaching effectiveness of bilingual education teachers. It should be understood, however, that the bilingual education teacher's effectiveness will be directly related to the cooperation, coordination and communication given by the special and vocational education teachers as suggested in the proposed training program.

The bilingual education teacher's role in the bilingual vocational program for Hispanic handicapped pupils can probably be described as a composite of various functions:

Function 1: The bilingual teacher as transmitter of knowledge in native language. For many Hispanic handicapped adolescents learning English as a second language and its benefits will be an exciting venture; for others, learning English will be slow and riddled with difficulties; and, for some, learning to speak the English language may seem impossible. Students who experience difficulty in learning English language survival skills may be assisted by the bilingual education teacher.

As transmitter of knowledge to Spanish speakers, the bilingual education teacher should follow the four basic requirements stipulated by Galvan, (1979), *i.e.*, provide instruction in two languages, use materials written in two languages, base instruction on two cultures, and give students opportunity to learn in two languages. Preferably, this function should not become common practice. Avoiding it, however, necessitates the employment of vocational and special educators who are themselves bilingual. Therefore, until there is a cadre of bilingual personnel in special education and vocational education, bilingual education teachers should be given additional preparation time so they can become familiar with the special and vocational dicipline's concepts, tasks and procedures required of the student and to develop instructional materials accordingly. It is in this function that bilingual education teachers need special help and cooperation from their colleagues in special education and vocational education.

Function 2: The bilingual teacher as an adaptive behavior specialist. The bilingual education teacher also needs to teach adaptive behavior skills to Hispanic handicapped pupils, *i.e.*, skills on how to get along. It is essential that these students learn to cope with the anxieties

brought about by peer pressure and unrealistic demands placed upon them by persons in status positions. The Hispanic handicapped pupil must learn to respond appropriately to excessive teasing, to exclusion, and to being blamed without cause as well as to harsh reprimands from authority figures when they "fight back" against these perceived injustices. The bilingual teacher needs to counsel these students about preservation of self-dignity; acceptance of and coping with the realities of who they are; their potential and limitations; and, how to sidestep potential barriers in achieving their educational goals.

Hispanic pupils with handicapping conditions must learn that similar behavior exhibited by non-handicapped and handicapped individuals under similar situations is not usually given equal value by their non-handicapped peers. In addition, these special students need to learn that they may encounter "double discrimination" due to their handicapping condition and to their cultural identification. Yet, under these unusual and complex circumstances these pupils need to learn socialization skills if they are to be accepted by peers, classroom teachers, and by significant authority figures.

Function 3: The bilingual teacher as a language development specialist. ESL methods must be employed to assist limited English proficient Hispanic pupils gain competence in the English language. These survival language skills are essential in academic and vocational settings for understanding instructions and directions, and for gaining knowledge through group discussions and independent reading.

Survival language in the ESL lesson should originate from safety rules, tool lists, lesson plans, handouts, shop

manuals, texts, and other vocationally/academically related material which may be obtained from the vocational and special education instructors. In essence, the major responsibility of the bilingual education teacher in this function is to create survival language lessons that incorporate remedial elements into ESL methods (Pittman, 1974) while teaching vocational vocabulary.

Function 4: The bilingual teacher as promoter of culture. The bilingual education teacher is in the best position to understand and promote customs, language, problems and concerns of the Hispanic population. Because of their competence, the bilingual education teacher can relate to the Hispanic handicapped student's basic life-style and assist them to enhance their cultural beliefs, values, and language while helping them to adapt to and survive in the American culture. The bilingual education teacher is an essential link in building communication between school and the Hispanic community.

As a part of continuous professional development activity, bilingual education teachers can disseminate information to their colleagues about the Hispanic's lifestyle, beliefs, values and attitudes. This information should help prevent misunderstandings that have traditionally led to antagonism and confrontation between teachers and Hispanic pupils. If necessary, the bilingual education teacher can serve as interpreter during parent-teacher and teacher-pupil conferences.

Closing Comments and Challenges

Without a doubt, Hispanic students have historically been considered both a burden and a challenge in public

education. These students have been misunderstood to such a degree that they have been disciplined harshly and advised into nonacademic programs, and classroom teachers have "give up" on teaching them (Letsinger, 1973). For the handicapped Hispanic, these problems are compounded.

The school can little afford to continue to employ traditional strategies that isolate handicapped Hispanic students from learning opportunities. Programs must be created to offset the never-ending defeat cycle that has plagued these students. New strategies must be attempted to neutralize factors thought to be too difficult for classroom teachers to solve.

Programs and strategies with thrusts similar to the proposed bilingual vocational education program would surely make positive steps towards meeting the needs of the Hispanic adolescent with accompanying handicapping conditions. Initiating, developing and maintaining bilingual special education efforts, such as the proposed training model, is truly a challenge of the future. This challenge, however, must be expediently met in order to avoid the perpetuation of educational practices that do not prepare these students to overcome disadvantaged states that render them a life of poverty and a general state of hopelessness. It is believed that the coordinated effort between professionals from different disciplines (Troike and Perez, 1980) such as that proposed between bilingual education, special education and vocational education will be the key to the success of programs that address the complex needs of these bilingual handicapped pupils. Of course, the test of whether or not such a program is implemented rests with the degree to which personnel in the vocational education, special education and bilingual education discipline

are willing to participate in the required cooperative efforts and the development of interdisciplinary strategies.

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COMPUTER-ASSISTED INSTRUCTION FOR LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENCY STUDENTS LEARNING BASIC ENGLISH STRUCTURES

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Dallas Independent School District

Introduction

The Title VII Computer-Assisted Spanish-English Transition Sequence Project is best known as CASETS. It is a computer-assisted instructional program which has been developed over a three year period for use with Limited English Proficiency students (LEP's) who are learning basic English structures along with Texas History or U.S. History.

Purposes

The three general purposes of the program are–

1. To develop and improve the English language skills of Limited English Proficiency students.

2. To provide a bilingual Social Studies program to LEP's.

3. To provide reinforcement of information in both English and Social Studies.

Program Development

A. *Curriculum Development*

While the project has included two major components (curriculum development and parent/teacher training), today's presentation will focus on curriculum development.

1. Following the initial writing and several editings of a lesson, it is programmed onto a computer diskette.

2. The lesson is then checked by the editor for accuracy of content and appearance. Changes are recommended by the editor.

3. The disk is returned to the programmer who makes the changes. This process is repeated several times until the lesson is correct.

4. Then the completed lesson is placed in the classroom.

B. *Implementation in the ESL Classroom*

In a typical classroom the teacher first introduces an ESL lesson. Then students practice, both orally and at the board. Finally, the students reinforce the lesson by going to the computer, either singly or in groups of two to four. In this way, the computer instruction is a reinforcing strategy to the ESL classroom instruction.

C. *Content and Organization of the ESL Package*

There are two levels of ESL instruction. In Level I ESL materials, students experience language patterns, tenses, and basic sentence structures (beginning-intermediate levels). Level II ESL instruction introduces more complex sentence structures and language patterns (intermediate-advanced levels). Finally, Level II provides a simple approach to the development of reading and initial writing skills.

The ESL package is scheduled and organized as

follows:

	Day 1 Day 2 Day 3	Day 4
Week 1	Grammer Lesson _____	Narrative & Reading Comprehension Lessons
Week 2	_____	
	_____	
Week 3	_____	
	_____	
•		
Week 26	_____	

Level I of the package contains 26 weeks of lessons. Within each week, there are lessons for four days. The first three days consist of directed grammar lessons. The fourth day consists of an applied grammar lesson in which the language structures introduced during the week are found in a social studies narrative.

Each lesson for the week includes six concept frames, which either give instruction (Days 1-3) or tell a story (Day 4), and twelve question frames. The following testing formats are used in asking the questions: sentence completion, multiple choice, true-false, alphabetical order, matching, and analogy. A sample grammar lesson is found in the Appendix.

Level II of the package also contains 26 weeks of lessons, and each week contains lessons for four days. The first three days, once again, consist of a directed grammar lesson. The fourth day consists of a reading comprehension lesson. A sample reading lesson is found in the Appendix.

The reading comprehension lessons contain three paragraphs, each followed by four comprehension questions. Each of the questions accompanying a paragraph

Format A	*Format B*	*Format C*
1. Subject Matter	1. Specific Detail	1. Subject Matter
2. Specific Detail	2. Sequencing	2. Specific Detail
3. Vocabulary in Context	3. Vocabulary in Context	3. Vocabulary in Context
4. Main Idea	4. Main Idea	4. Drawing Conclusions

The questions expose students to the following types of comprehensive questions:

1. *Question of Subject Matter (Topic)* – What is the story about?

2. *Question of Main Idea* – What is the main idea of this paragraph? Can it be found in a *topic sentence*?

3. *Question of Specific Detail* – What is the specific detail which supports this main idea?

4. *Question of Sequencing* – In what order do the events of this paragraph take place?

5. *Question of Drawing Conclusions* – What conclusions can we draw from this paragraph? Can we predict any outcomes?

6. *Question of Vocabulary in Context* – Based on information from the surrounding paragraph, what is the meaning of this new word?

(Rationale for the ESL Scope and Sequence and the Scope and Sequence for ESL I and ESL II are found in the Appendix.)

D. *Design, Pilot, and Field-testing*

Design-, pilot-, and field-testing of the materials took place during the various phases of the project. In 1980-1981, materials were design-tested in two Dallas middle schools. In 1981-1982, materials were pilot-tested in eighth grades from three schools and seventh grades from two schools. Finally, in 1982-1983, materials were field-tested in both seventh and eighth grades from four middle schools.

Conclusion

The CASETS Project is an innovative set of materials which uses up-to-date technology in the classroom. Its advantages are (1) as a reinforcement to classroom instruction and (2) as a first step towards computer literacy for LEP's make it especially valuable as an auxiliary component to language instruction.

Rationale for the ESL Package

Rationale A: *An Expansive, Adaptable Curriculum for the ESL Classroom*

The CASETS ESL package encompasses an expansive, "waterfront" curriculum which is designed to meet individual student needs at many levels. This can be seen in a variety of ways within the ESL component.

1. Levels I and II of the ESL program include instruction of the most basic language structures to very advanced structures.

2. Language arts lessons in Level II include information on types of sentences, punctuation, etc.

3. Level II of ESL includes a complete set of reading selections which gives students summary information on social studies while exposing students to questions of main idea, specific detail, sequencing, drawing conclusions, and vocabulary in context.

4. Lessons on vocabulary development include information on word formation (prefix-root-suffix); homonyms, synonyms, and atonyms; and vocabulary in context.

Rationale B: *The Use of Patterning in an Eclectic Approach to Language Learning*

While a variety of approaches to ESL instruction have proven useful in the classroom, a *grammatical patterning approach* has been chosen for this CAI series.

This selection has been made for at least two reasons:

1. Adaptability to teacher-knowledge is crucially important in developing a series which will be utilized by a large number and variety of ESL instructors. The informa-

tion and scope and sequence included in this series is compatible with most of ESL texts/workbooks presently available on the market.

2. The *patterning approach* also lends itself readily to the computer. A straight-forward, explicit presentation of information is what the computer does best. As one component in an ESL program, CAI will serve to reinforce the other ESL learning activities recommended in an *electic approach* to language learning.

Rationale C: *CAI as a Reinforcer of Classroom Instruction*

Computer Assisted instruction can be utilized in a variety of ways within an educational setting. In the ESL classroom, it works ideally as a reinforcement to classroom instruction. This is true because most ESL students (especially beginners) require a comprehensive program of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

For this reason, it is recommended that the CASETS ESL package (Level I and Level II) be utilized as reinforcement following classroom instruction. While the lessons can "stand on their own" in terms of the content included in each lesson, their utilization is maximized when used following the teacher's directed instruction.

Rationale D: *ESL and Content Area Reading (Social Studies)*

In additional to addressing the various language needs of students, the ESL component is designed to reinforce students' learning of Social Studies through the lessons found on Day 4 of each week. In Level I, these lessons deal with Social Studies units in U.S. History while re-

inforcing the new grammatical structures found in each lesson. In Level II, specific Reading Comprehension lessons dealing with Social Studies content are found on Day 4. Each lesson includes questins of main ideas, specific detail, sequencing, drawing conclusions, and vocabulary in context.

Rationale E: *CAI and Computer Literacy*

While students are receiving this reinforcement of language/reading skills instruction and social studies information, they are also learning to use the TRS-80 Computer (by Radio Shack). In this age of computers, literacy in this area is most important. This program provides for LEP's–a group often overlooked for computer literacy.

ESL: Level I
Scope and Sequence

Revised Final Scope

1. This is/That is –
   Those are/Those are –

2. *Pronouns*

I	am	a teacher
you	are	happy
he		
she	is	
it		
we	are	
you	are	at the school
they	are	

3. Adverbs and Prepositions – example: Where is she?

4. Simple Present Tense: Days of the Week
   example: I go to school on Monday

5. *Numbers*
   1 first
   10 tenth

6. *Present Progressive* – example: I am going.

7. *Nouns:* Forming Plurals

8. *Nouns:* Mass Nouns:Count Nouns

9. *Prepositions:* (to where. . .?) (when. . .?)

10. *Possessive and Family Relationships*

11. *Pronoun System*
    a. Subjective/Objective

b. Possessive Pn./Possessive Adj.

12. *Questions*
    a. Yes/No questions
    b. Why questions

13. Months and Holidays
    (Dates & Numbers 11-31)

14. Simple *Past Tense*-Regular

15. Simple *Past Tense*-Irregular

16. Adverbs/Prepositions
    (when, where, how?)

17. Adjectives/Prepositions (Descriptive)

18. Adjectives (Comparative/Superlative)

19. *Past Progressive* Tense

20. *Future*: Simple Future (will)
    "going to" Future

21. *Future*: Two-word verbs

22. *Present Perfect* (Regular)

23. *Present Perfect* (Irregular)

24. *Present Perfect Progressive*

25. *Past Perfect*

26. *Past Perfect Progressive*

ESL LEVEL II

Scope and Sequence

Revised E2

Final Scope

1. *Vocabulary:* To learn about new words/-
   Word formation–a.prefix–roots–suffixes
   b. suffixes
   c.prefixes

2. *Vocabulary:* Context Clues–
   Antonyms/Synonyms–
   Homonyms–

3. What Is a Sentence?
   1. Sentences and Phrases - S + V
   2. The Simple Sentence
      NV
      NVN
      NVNN
      NV Comp.
   3. Forming the Question & Negative with each

4. *Recognizing Nouns* –
   –Common and Proper Nouns
   –Singular/Plurals–
   –Possessive

5. *Articles/Punctuations*
   a. *Articles/Definite & Indefinite*
   b. Punctuation/Use of Apostrophe-Possessive
   c. Punctuation/Use of Apostrophe-Contractions

6. *Pronouns* (I)
   a. This/That/These/Those (Demonstrative)
   b. Subject - Object
   c. *both*

7. *Pronouns* (II)
   a. Possessive
   b. Reflexive
   c. *both*

8. *Review of Tenses:*
   Present Q/A
   Present/Progressive Q/A
   Negative

9. *Prepositions*
   1. Adverb/Prepositions - (when, where)
   2. Adverb/Prepositions - (when, where)
   3. Adjective/Prepositions (with)

10. *Asking Questions*
   a. Yes/No Questions
   b. Why Questions
      What?
      When?
      Where?
      How?

11. Adjectives/as...as
   a. Comparative/Superl. Adj. (Regular)
   b. Comparative/Superl. Adj. (Irregular)
   c. Both (good-better-best/well-better-best)

12. *Adverbs* as . . . as
    a. Comparative/Superl. Adv. more/most
       less/least
    b.
    c.

13. *Review of Tenses*: Past Q/A
    Past Progressive Q/A
    Negative

14. *Tenses*: Future/ a) will Q/A/N
    b) going to Q/A/N
    c) two-word verbs Q/A/N

15. a. Present Perfect Q/A
    b. Present Perf. Prog Q/A
    c. Negative

16. a. Past Perfect Q/A
    b. Past Perfect Progressive Q/A
    c. Negative

17. a. Future Perfect Q/A
    b. Future Perfect Progressive Q/A
    c. Negative

18. *Kinds of Sentences*
    a. Statement/Question/Exclamation/Imperative
    b. Kinds of End Punctuation (.) (?) (!)
    c.

19. *Types of Sentences*
    a. Simple Sentence (Review)

b. Compound Sentence/Coordinating Conj.
c. Complex Sentence/Subordinating Conj.

20. *Punctuation for Compound and Complex Sentences*
a. *Compound* – , and
, or
, nor
, but
, for

b. *Complex* – comma after Subord. Conj.
at beginning of sentence – yes.
at beginning of sentence – no.

c. Review

21. *The Relative Pronoun*–
who, that, which, what
who/whom
question/answer
Punctuation/(Restrictive & Nonrestrictive clause)

22. *Modals*: may/might (from E1)

23. *Modals*: can/could (from E1)

24. *Modals*: should/ought to (from E1)

25. *Modals*: must/have to

26. *Conditionals*: would/if

Sample Reading Lesson

The Reading Comprehension lesson consists of three paragraphs, each followed by four comprehensive questions. A sample of Paragraphs I, II, and III are presented here.

Paragraph I

The U.S. Civil War was fought between the North and South. The main reason for the war was slavery. In the South many people owned Black slaves. The slaves helped with the work on the plantations (big-farms). Most people in the North did not own slaves. They believed it was not right to buy and sell people. Eventually this disagreement led to war.

A. This paragraph is about–
1) the north
2) commerce
3) slave life
4) causes of the Civil War

B. Slaves lived primarily in–
1) the North
2) the South
3) the East
4) the West

Paragraph II

The U.S. Civil War lasted from 1861 to 1865. Most of it was fought in the South. Many people on both sides died. Crops, towns, and homes were burned. The North was stronger than the South. It had more factories, people and money. Finally, the South surrendered to the North and there was peace.

A. How long did the Civil War last?
1) 3 years
2) 2 years
3) 1 year
4) 4 years

B. After having its crops, towns, and homes burned, what did the South do?
1) they won
2) they surrendered
3) they were happy
4) they asked the North for peace

Paragraph III

Abraham Lincoln was President of the U.S. when the Civil War ended in 1865. He wanted to be generous and kind to the losing South. Unfortunately, Lincoln was assassinated (killed) before he could enforce his plan. Northern people who hated the South took control and imposed a harsh, strict plan on the South. The hatred and bitterness both from the war and from the plan, lasted many years in the South.

A. This paragraph is about the time–
1) just before the Civil War
2) just after the Civil War
3) during the Civil War
4) during World War.

C. A plantation is –
1) a big farm
2) a factory
3) a battle ground
4) a home for slaves

D. The main idea of this paragraph is –
1) a description of life in the South
2) work on the plantations was hard
3) disagreement about slavery caused the Civil War.

C. The word surrender means –
1) to give up
2) to win
3) to play
4) to fight

D. The main idea of this paragraph is –
1) to tell how many people died in the North.
2) to tell about towns in the South.
3) to give a short description of the Civil War.

C. The word, hatred, means –
1) extreme dislike
2) love
3) joy
4) dislike

D. What kind of a man was Abraham Lincoln?
1) He was mean.
2) He was good
3) He was strict.

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ASSESSING THE BILINGUAL CHILD: WHAT SHOULD BE, WHAT IS AND WHAT COULD BE

by

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It was proposed that this model represents what should be. However, in examining current practices, it was agreed that few of these criteria were being met for bilingual children. In the best of current situations, the child may receive services that are linguistically and culturally appropriate 80% of the time (in a bilingual classroom) and services that are intellectually appropriate (from a special education professional) 20% of the time. In some cases, the situation is reversed and the child is served by special education personnel a large proportion of the time in a language the child does not know.

The obvious solution to this impasse is to have sufficient bilingual special education professionals to meet each child's intellectual needs in the language(s) in which that child can succeed most readily while English is being learned. The reality of the current situation with respect to bilingual and special education teacher requirement and training is that sufficient professional staff with adequate training in both areas is not and will not be available in sufficient numbers in the near future.

This led to the conclusion that until such personnel become available in greater numbers, the following intermediate steps should be undertaken with encouragement from school districts, universities, state agencies and advocate organization via tuition, inservice credit and extra pay.

1. All bilingual and English as a Second Language teachers should have *at least* the following courses:
    A. Introduction to Teaching the Exceptional Child (an overview of handicapping conditions and appropriate teaching methods.

B. Teaching the Menthally Retarded Child
C. Teaching the Learning Disabled Child

2. All Special Education Diagnosticians should have *at least* the following courses:
   A. Psycholinguistics/Language Acquisition and the Linguistically Different/Bilingual Learner
   B. Sociolinguistics and the Linguistically Different/Bilingual Learner
   C. General Descriptive and/or Contrastive Linguistics
   D. Methods of Teaching English as a Second Language (This is the equivalent of an endorsement for teaching English as a Second Language.)
3. All special education teachers for the mentally retarded and for the learning disabled should acquire the English as a Second Language endorsement (as described above).

The rationale presented for the intermediate steps listed above was that, whether or not adequate diagnosis of the bilingual special child is currently feasible, there would be more likelihood of reasonably adequate assessment and instruction if the personnel who served bilingual special children had such preparation.

Figure 1

Sequence for an Equal Opportunity Bilingual Testing Program

1. Test the child's language dominance and language proficiency on entrance to the program
   A. Using a test which is culturally and linguistically appropriate
   B. Administered by a person familiar with the child's culture and fluent in his/her language and who is liked and respected by the child
   C. In a testing environment which provides for both field sensitive and field independent learning and performance modes
2. Test the child's IQ using an appropriate test (same criteria listed above). This should not be a test which depends on language proficiency to determine intellectual potential.
3. Provide relevant, linguistically, culturally and intellectually appropriate instruction to the child.
   A. Taking into account the child's interests and preferences with respect to the language or languages in which he/she learns the necessary concepts and skills
   B. Providing the child with a variety of positive learning environments
   C. Utilizing well-designed and implemented curricula
   D. Adapted and guided by instruction provided by competent, dedicated, sympathetic teachers.
4. Test the child's achievement regularly in each language, according to the level and type of instruction the child has received in that language and observing the criteria listed in the first step.

5. Exit the child from a bilingual program only when
   A. The child's achievement in English reaches as high a level as his/her achievement in Spanish
   B. This achievement level is congruent with the child's appropriately measured potential (IQ), and
   C. The child is *willing* to receive all his/her instruction in English.

A Summary

The argument presented was that the true task of adequately serving the bilingual special student is less a function of precise diagnosis than of competent, intelligent, efficient, effective educational resource management and effective motivation of staff.

This article was based on a review of issues discussed in a forthcoming article entitled "Designing an Equal Opportunity Testing Program for the Mexican American Child," (to appear in *Bilingual Education* 2d ed, edited by Barry Persky, Leonard Golubchick, and Hernan LaFontaine; Wayne, NJ: Avery Publishing Group). The model sequence recommended (cited from that article) appears as Figure 1.

Federation of
North Texas Area Universities